International Library of Technology

268

GOOD ENGLISH

37 ILLUSTRATIONS

By

CLARA L. BUSHNELL

PRINCIPAL, SCHOOL OF ENGLISH

INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS

INCLUDING FORMS
FOR LETTER WRITING

Published by

INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY

SCRANTON, PA.

1925

Good English, Parts 1–12, Copyright, 1920, by International Textbook Company.
Good English, Parts 13–15, Copyright, 1921, by International Textbook Company.

Copyright in Great Britain

All rights reserved

Printed in U. S. A.

Press of
International Textbook Company
Scranton, Pa.
268

87113

PREFACE

The volumes of the International Library of Technology are made up of Instruction Papers, or Sections, comprising the various courses of instruction for students of the International Correspondence Schools. The original manuscripts are prepared by persons thoroughly qualified both technically and by experience to write with authority, and in many cases they are regularly employed elsewhere in practical work as experts. The manuscripts are then carefully edited to make them suitable for correspondence instruction. The Instruction Papers are written clearly and in the simplest language possible, so as to make them readily understood by all students. Necessary technical expressions are clearly explained when introduced.

The great majority of our students wish to prepare themselves for advancement in their vocations or to qualify for more congenial occupations. Usually they are employed and able to devote only a few hours a day to study. Therefore every effort must be made to give them practical and accurate information in clear and concise form and to make this information include all of the essentials but none of the non-essentials. To make the text clear, illustrations are used freely. These illustrations are especially made by our own Illustrating Department in order to adapt them fully to the requirements of the text.

In the table of contents that immediately follows are given the titles of the Sections included in this volume, and under each title are listed the main topics discussed. At the end of the volume will be found a complete index, so that any subject treated can be quickly found.

INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY

CONTENTS

GOOD ENGLISH	Section	Page
Handwriting and Letters	1	2
Importance of Good Handwriting	1	2
Some Essentials to Good Penmanship	1	3
Letter Writing	1	13
An Application for a Clerkship	1	16
A Clerk's Letter of Inquiry	1	17
Words	2	1
Pronunciation	2	2
Syllables	2	8
Accent	2	10
Common Errors in Pronunciation	2	15
Common Errors in Speech	2	16
Spelling	2	17
Various Meanings of Words	3	2
Common Errors	3	14
Terms Often Confused in Use	4	1
Synonyms	4	7
Terms Often Wrongly Used	4	12
Use of Long Terms and Expressions	4	16
The Sentence and Its Elements	5	1
The Principal Parts of Sentences	5	2
Kinds of Sentences According to Use	5	7
Dictionary Exercise	5	12
Miscellaneous Common Errors	5	13
Spelling Words	5	15
Sentences Classified According to Form	6	1
Simple Sentence	6	1
Compound Sentence	6	3

GOOD ENGLISH—*Continued*	*Section*	*Page*
Miscellaneous Common Errors	6	9
Spelling Words	6	11
Words to Be Learned	6	11
Correcting Misspelled Words	6	15
Review Exercise	6	15
Complex Sentence	7	1
The Clause	7	1
Classifying Sentences	7	11
Miscellaneous Errors	7	21
Spelling	7	23
Punctuation	8	1
Importance of Punctuation	8	1
Rules for Punctuation	8	4
Abbreviations	8	16
Lists of Abbreviations and Signs	8	17
Dictionary Exercise	8	24
Miscellaneous Errors	8	25
Correcting Errors in Sentences	8	26
List of Words for Spelling	8	26
Using Words in Sentences	8	28
Rules for the Use of Capital Letters	9	1
Indicating the Rules for Capital Letters	9	6
Supplying Capital Letters	9	8
Applying the Capital-Letter Rules in Letter Writing	9	10
The Vocabulary	9	11
Methods of Increasing the Vocabulary	9	12
Adding Words to Your Vocabulary	9	13
Spelling	9	13
Review Exercise	9	22
Parts of Speech	10	1
Noun	10	1
The Pronoun	10	8
The Verb	10	12
The Adjective	10	18
The Adverb	10	19
The Preposition	10	28

GOOD ENGLISH—*Continued*	*Section*	*Page*
The Conjunction	10	32
The Interjection	10	35
Remarks	10	36
Classifying Words	10	37
Nouns and Pronouns	11	1
Classes of Nouns	11	1
Classes of Pronouns	11	4
Inflection	11	10
Case	11	18
Use of Nouns and Pronouns	11	27
Writing the Correct Forms of Sentences	11	34
Practice in Using Nouns and Pronouns	11	35
The Verb	12	1
Inflections of the Verb	12	1
Verbals and Infinitives	12	32
Omission of the Verb or of Part of the Verb	12	36
Review Exercise	12	38
The Adjective and the Adverb	13	1
Their Uses and Distinctions	13	1
Selecting Adjectives and Adverbs	13	5
Comparisons	13	5
Practice in the Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs	13	8
Improper Use of Adjectives and Adverbs	13	10
Correcting Errors in the Use of Adjectives and Adverbs	13	12
Adjectives and Adverbs Frequently Misused	13	13
Discriminating in the Use of Adjectives and Adverbs	13	23
The Preposition and the Conjunction	13	24
Prepositions	13	24
Conjunctions	13	31
The Phrase and the Clause	13	38
Review Exercise	13	43
Letter Writing	14	1
General Information Concerning Letters	14	1

GOOD ENGLISH—*Continued*	*Section*	*Page*
Writing the Letter	14	3
Business Letters	14	13
Business Words and Phrases	14	34
Miscellaneous Business Letters	15	1
Faults to Be Avoided	15	13
Correcting Errors	15	14
Business Forms	15	15
Social Correspondence	15	29
Friendship Letters	15	29
Specimen Friendly Letters	15	31
Letters of Thanks	15	34
Letters of Condolence	15	36
Letters of Congratulation	15	38
Correcting Errors in a Letter	15	39

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 1)

SCOPE OF THESE LESSONS

1. In recent years, so great has become the demand for a knowledge of correct English that you must get a firm grasp of this subject if you wish to keep abreast of the times. You cannot converse properly nor read understandingly unless you know how to use English words. Furthermore, without this knowledge, you cannot participate in business affairs as you should, for now most business is transacted through the medium of letters, checks, drafts, bills, and receipts. Not to understand the correct use of English will place you at a disadvantage among your fellow men, but not to know how *to write* business forms will prevent you from transacting your own business affairs intelligently and from advancing in the business world. A letter that shows carelessness or only a slight knowledge of the way in which it should be written, receives little or no attention from the business man. In fact, he has no time to waste on a poorly constructed letter.

To meet this demand for correctness in the use of English and for a knowledge of standard business forms, this work on Good English has been prepared. It is not presented as an exhaustive study of the subject, but as a series of lessons that will enable you to meet, on an equal footing, your friends and business associates and to carry on properly the business affairs of your every-day life. With such a foundation, you may improve both your social standing and your business efficiency.

2. You will find that this work divides itself naturally into two parts: (1) The principles that relate to correct English—handwriting, spelling, grammar, sentence structure, paragraph-

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ing, punctuation, capitalization, letter writing—and (2) the application of these principles to the forms themselves. However, no separation of them is made; they go hand in hand throughout the subject. As soon as you learn certain rules, you have an opportunity to apply them.

As you go through these lessons, try to realize the importance of applying the things you learn. There is a vital connection between what we have presented here and the occasions where this instruction applies. Study these matters with the idea of making them your own for future use, or for use at once. Seek quick, definite results. Some points may seem unimportant, but do not neglect such points. You will recognize their value as you proceed with your lessons. When you have fixed each phase of this subject firmly enough in your mind to be able to call it forth on the proper occasion, you will have accomplished the purpose of your studies.

HANDWRITING AND LETTERS

IMPORTANCE OF GOOD HANDWRITING

3. Have you ever realized how many times a day we are called on to use handwriting? A clerk in a store must make out a slip for every sale she makes and must keep a record of the amount of each sale. A delivery boy often has to sign bills when payment is made to him. Even the boy who delivers the newspaper at your home or place of business is usually required to keep a record of his customers and their accounts. Some places of business require their employes to make out time slips and to give detailed accounts of the work they do. Besides these occasions, all of which arise in the performance of business duties, there are countless times when one must sign one's name, write a telegram or a letter, fill out a check, etc.

Then, too, it may happen that your writing is the only means that strangers have of estimating your worth. Many men of real ability have applied for situations that they could have filled successfully, but they failed to obtain these situations because their letters of application were poorly written, and

the employer had no other means of judging their fitness for the positions.

These facts show that a neat, legible form of handwriting is something that every one should acquire. Its value cannot be overestimated. It may be essential in the management of your own affairs, to your present success in the position you hold, or to your future advancement. Therefore, here at the beginning of your studies, your attention is called to the subject of handwriting, and throughout this lesson are exercises that will afford you an opportunity of putting into practice the instructions that are given you.

SOME ESSENTIALS TO GOOD PENMANSHIP

4. Perhaps the first question that comes to you is: What is good penmanship? Good writing may be briefly defined as writing that is easily read and easily and rapidly written. These then are the goals for which you should strive.

Two things are necessary to the acquirement of a good style of handwriting: *study* and *practice*. Study is the only means by which the correct forms of the letters can be learned; while practice is necessary in order that you may make those letters easily and legibly.

5. Since the ability to write a good hand is an acquirement, and not a natural gift, any person who will work in the right way and who will persevere for a reasonable time can become a good writer; that is, become able to write a good, plain business hand, which is all that is expected of the average person.

6. Foundation of Good Writing. — Good writing depends so much on correct position that the position may be said to be for a time the most important thing to consider. It is the key to easy and rapid writing. Do not be content to read but once the description of the position and to glance at the illustrations today with no thought of ever going back to them; refer to them often and study them so closely that they become fixed in your mind. Every time you sit down to write, let your first thought be of your position and the manner of holding your pen. In time you will learn to assume the right posi-

tion without special care, for it is in reality the easiest and most natural one that can be taken. But until the correct position has become a habit, you must watch yourself closely.

Fig. 1

POSITIONS

7. Position of Body.—Observe Figs. 1 and 2 closely. These illustrations show the correct position very plainly. Note that the feet are squarely on the floor, some distance

apart, and that both arms are on the table, so that the body is in what is known as the front position, which keeps the shoulders even. The body leans forward over the table only as much as the bending from the hips throws it forward naturally.

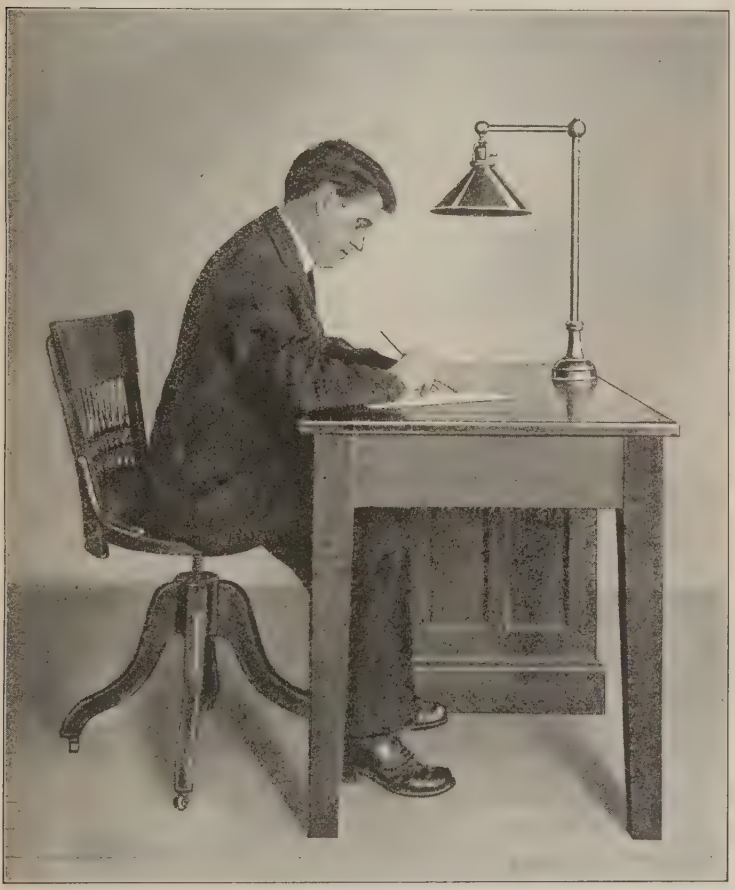


Fig. 2

If the sight is normal, this position brings the eyes at the proper distance from the writing. The position of the body is then easy, natural, and healthful. Writing will not make one round-shouldered nor the shoulders uneven if the position is right.

8. Position of Paper, Etc.—Fig. 3 shows the relative position of desk, paper, arms, and pen. Observe that the paper is placed diagonally across the desk, but that it is not slanted enough for the edge to be parallel with the right forearm; that the right and the left arm are at right angles to each other; that the elbows project just a trifle over the edge of the desk; and that the penholder points in a direction not quite over the right shoulder but between shoulder and elbow.

9. A blotter should be placed under the right hand and be held in place by the left. The hand glides on this and the

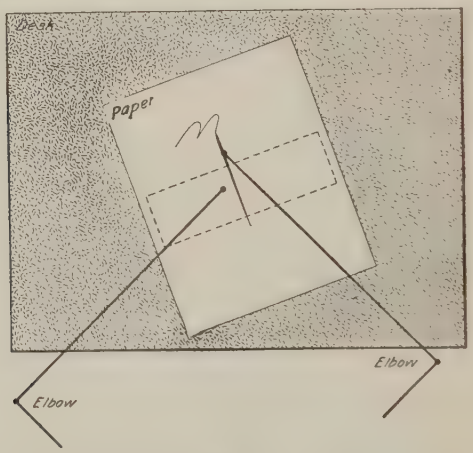


FIG. 3

paper is protected from being soiled by perspiration from the hand. The right elbow should be shifted from two to four times in writing across a page and the sheet must be moved forwards as progress is made toward the bottom.

10. Position of Arm and Hand.—Figs. 4 and 5 show the position of the arm and hand. Note that the arm rests on the fleshy part just in front of the elbow and that the hand rests and glides on the nails of the third and fourth fingers. Some penmen prefer to curl the fingers under a little more so that the gliding rest is on the joint of the little finger. Which of these two positions is the better depends on the length of the

fingers. The hand must not be turned so far to the right that the fleshy part touches the table. Neither should the wrist quite touch.

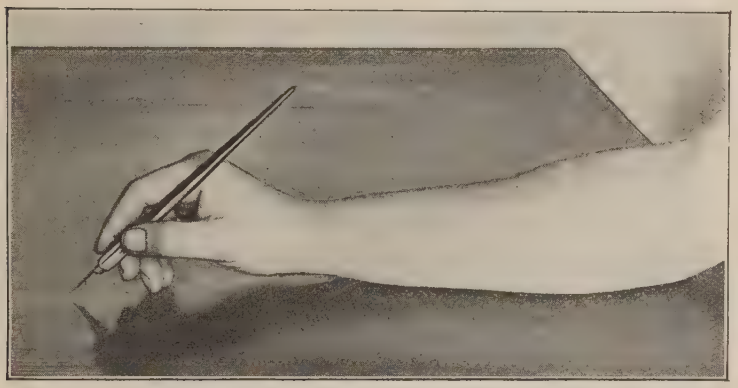


Fig. 4

The illustrations show the penholder crossing the hand at the knuckle joint of the first finger. Some persons prefer to hold the pen so that it crosses the hand just in front of the knuckle; others have it cross behind the joint. There is no set rule regarding this.

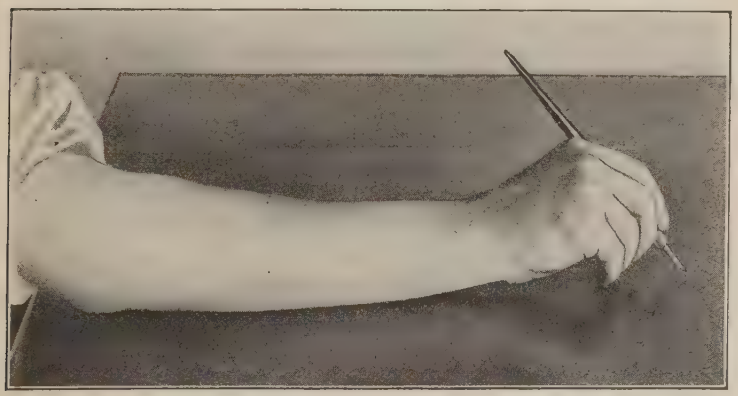


Fig. 5

The pen should be grasped firmly but lightly. Guard against gripping it tightly. Gripping cramps the muscles, tires the arm, and prevents freedom.

The clothing on the arm and shoulders should be loose and light. Tight sleeves make freedom impossible. Stiff cuffs are also a hindrance.

The full weight of the right arm should fall on the muscle, as shown. Any weight from the body that is made to fall on the arms can be thrown entirely on the left so as to allow the right perfect freedom.

No part of the hand should touch the paper except the tips of the third and fourth fingers.

11. Drill for Position and Arm Movement.—To get into position for writing, relax all muscles and let both arms fall lifelessly to the sides; swing them backwards and forwards a few times, then raise them a short distance above the desk and let them drop into place. The fingers will curl under naturally so that the hand will be about half closed and in just the right position for holding the pen. Whenever you write, do this for practice a number of times.

A drill for muscular action is the following: Place the arm in the position shown by Fig. 4, but, instead of taking the pen, close the hand in a tight fist, then move the arm rapidly forwards and backwards on the muscle as far as you can without sliding the sleeve. The movement should be in and out of the sleeve, or, if you wish, you may practice with the sleeve rolled up as in the illustration.

12. Requisites for Free-Arm Movement. — The requisites for free-arm movement may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Correct position of body, arm, and hand, which allows unrestricted action of the muscles.
2. Loose clothing on the arm and shoulders.
3. No gripping of the pen.
4. Relaxation. Not a muscle in the entire body should be tense.
5 The use of the forearm muscle as the center of motion.

MATERIALS

13. Do not try to economize on writing materials. Poor materials mean poor work. Use plenty of paper and pens but do not waste them.

The paper should be ruled and have a firm and smooth, but not glossy, surface. A good quality of foolscap is preferable.

Pens about as fine as Gillott's No. 604, Tec. No. 1, or Spencerian No. 1 are recommended. Moderately fine pens produce the best results. They compel the cultivation of a light, elastic touch, one of the essentials of good writing; they bring out the defects of the writing more plainly than others, thus allowing closer criticism; and they make necessary the exercise of care and attention to details.

If your touch is naturally very heavy and you find it impossible not to shade when you use a fine, flexible pen, try Gillott's No. 603 or 601. These are fine but stiff.

The penholder should have a cork or a rubber tip or be entirely of wood. Metal penholders are not good because they are usually so small near the point as to cause a tendency toward gripping.

The ink needs to be of a quality that will flow freely and evenly. A blue-black fluid ink is much better for ordinary writing than a jet-black ink, the latter being too heavy and thick. Do not use ink that is old, pale, or filled with sediment. Stafford's, Carter's, or Arnold's inks are of a satisfactory quality.

PROPER FORMATION OF LETTERS

14. An important requirement in the formation of letters is that you have in your mind a perfect picture of each letter; without this mental picture your handwriting will be imperfect. If you have such a picture, you will naturally strive for the right form without being conscious of the effort. In several of the Exercises that follow, handwriting is used so as to give the correct form of each letter, and it is hoped that you will study these forms for the purpose of creating in your mind a perfect mental picture for every letter.

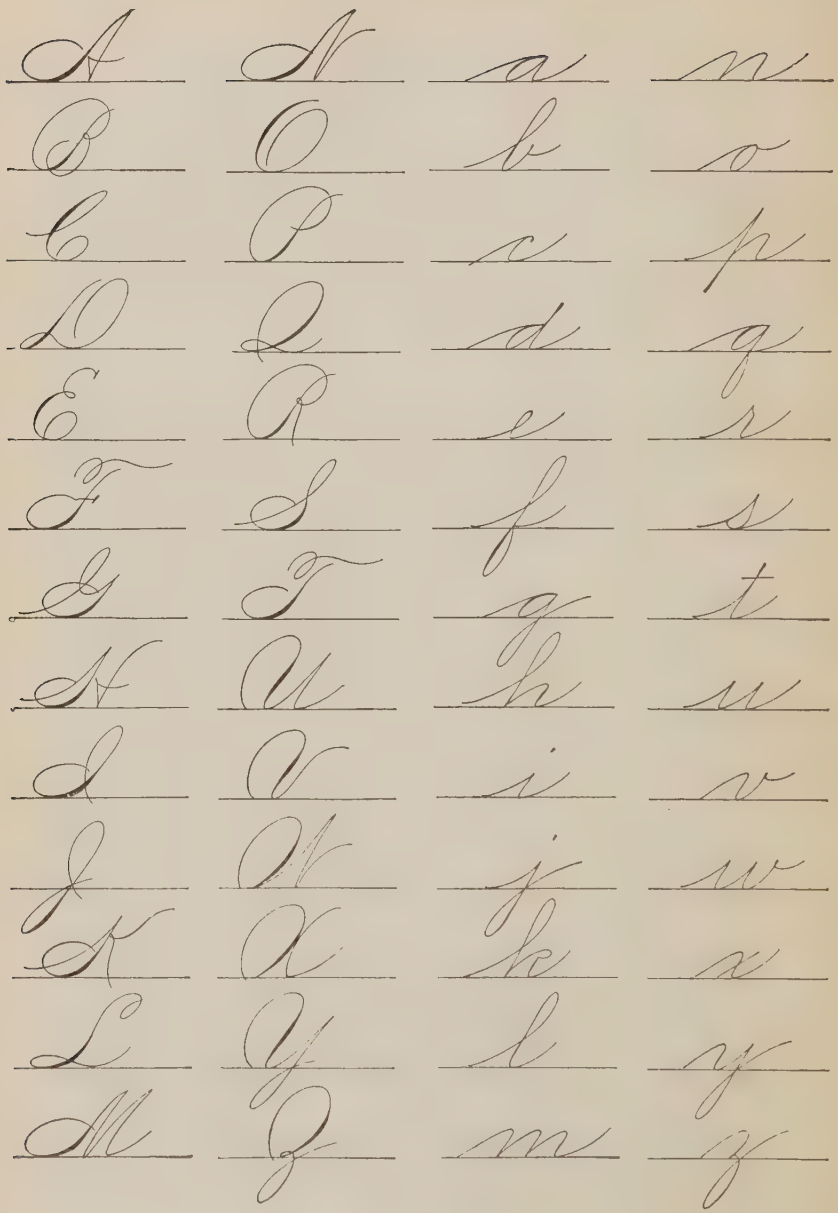


Fig. 6

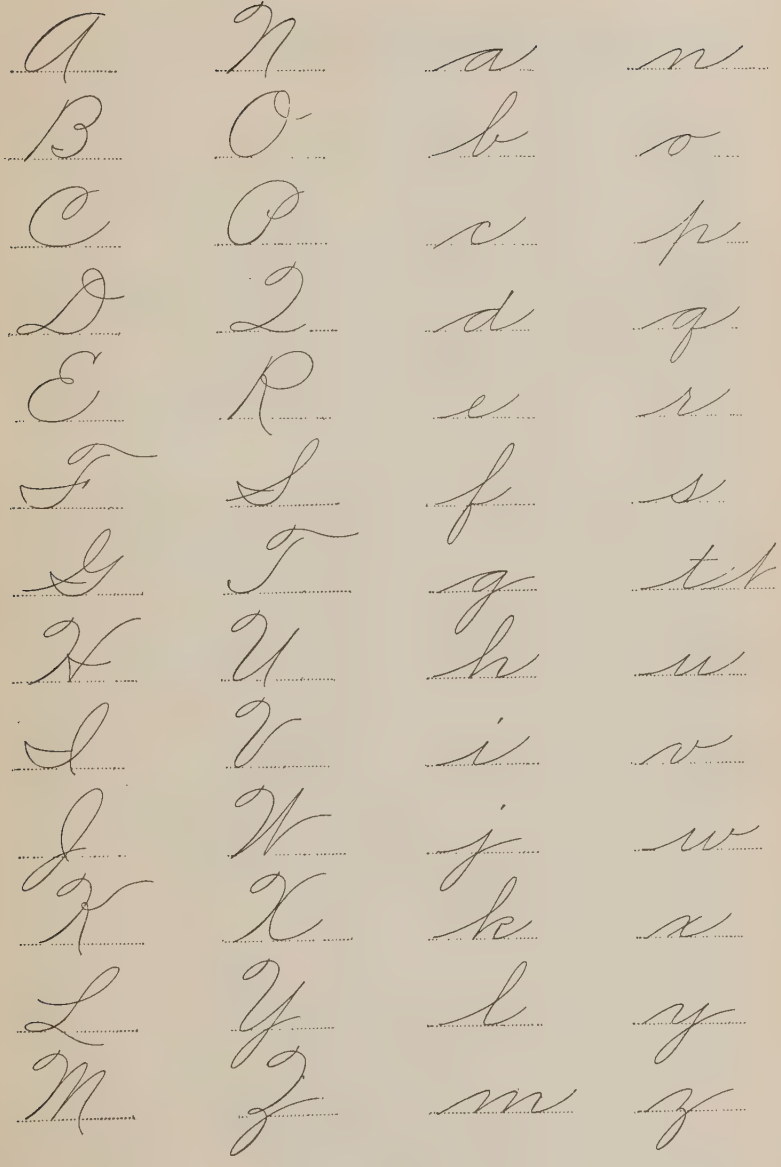
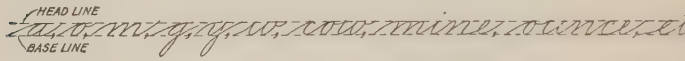


Fig. 7

In making the letters, try to observe a few general principles. Always dot the i's, cross the t's, and close small *a* and *o* at the top and small *s* at the bottom. Use care in forming the oval in *a*, *d*, *g*, *o*, and *q*; and in making the short curves in *e*, *i*, *m*, *n*, *u*, *v*, *w*, etc. and the long loops in *b*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, and *y*. Begin small letters at the base line of writing and end them at the headline, thus:



In Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 you will find proper forms for letters, which you may use as models, each figure illustrating a different style of letter. As you study these, observe the parts of each letter closely, noting each curved and each straight line, each angle and each turn. The more clearly you are able to distinguish between curved lines and straight lines, between angles and curves, the better penman you will become. Be critical about your own work in order to discover its faults. If you find some of your letters poorly made, turn again to the forms given in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7, select the style you prefer, and then practice the letters until you can make them correctly. Never lose sight of the fact that skill in writing is an accomplishment that produces great satisfaction and that is worth all the time and effort it involves. Do not expect perfection at once; have patience and practice conscientiously and intelligently. Through persistent effort your progress will be satisfactory, and your results gratifying.

LETTER WRITING

CORRECT FORMS

15. Throughout these lessons you will receive detailed instructions concerning the principles that govern the writing of correct business forms. However, that you may learn, at the very beginning, some of the main points to be observed in business correspondence, in this lesson a few of the customary forms for letters are given with brief explanations of their various parts. These forms and explanations are a preparation for the lessons that are to follow, and should be considered thoughtfully.

16. The first essentials of correct business forms are legible handwriting, neat arrangement, and correct spelling. Of course, there are many other points to be mastered, but these three are regarded as necessary for a foundation. It is important that every one who desires to become proficient in the writing of letters learn to observe these points.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE LETTER

17. There is no question about the importance of effective wording of the subject matter of the letter, but it is well to remember also that the reader is influenced strongly by the first impression the letter makes upon him, and is likely to judge his correspondent by the appearance and arrangement of the letter. He expects to find that certain forms are followed with respect to the various parts, and any variation from these accepted standards is likely to give him an unfavorable opinion of the writer, and make him less receptive to the message the letter contains. Therefore the principles of good arrangement, which will now be explained, deserve close attention.

18. Parts of a Letter.—Every complete business letter has seven parts. They are:

1. The Heading: This tells when and where the letter is written.

2. The Address: This shows to whom the letter is written and where he lives.

3. The Salutation, or Greeting: This takes the place of the "Good Morning," etc., you use when greeting a person,

Outline

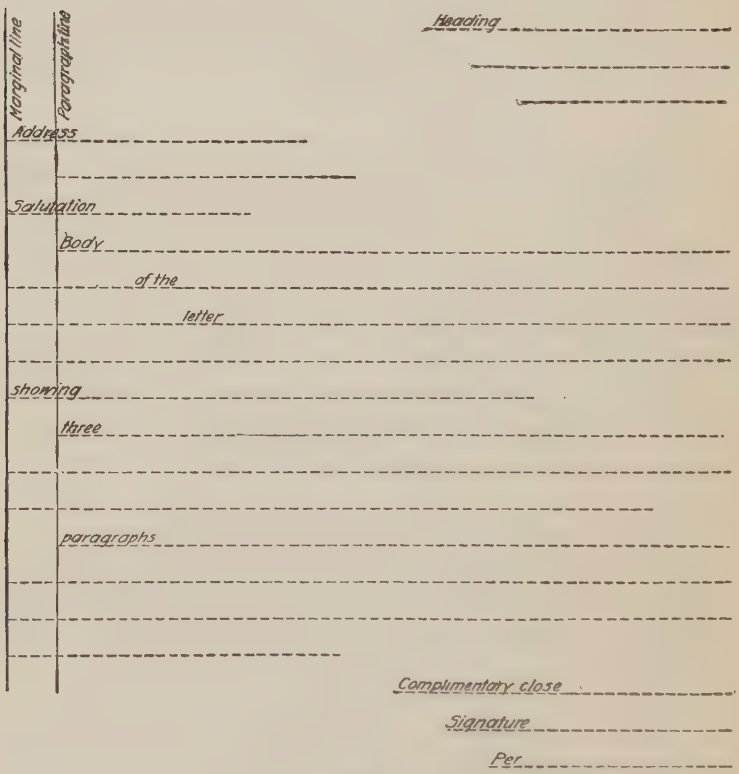


Fig. 8

and is usually some such expression as *Dear Sir, Gentlemen, Madam, My dear Mr. Brown.*

4. The Body, or Letter Proper: This is the message sent.

5. The Complimentary Close, or Leave-Taking: This might be regarded equivalent to the "Good-Bye" or other

expression you use when taking leave of a friend. It is usually some such expression as *Yours truly, Yours sincerely, Very truly yours.*

6. The Signature of the Writer: This shows who wrote the letter or in whose name it is sent.

7. The Superscription, or Envelope Address: This is for the benefit of the postal authorities so they may know to whom the letter is to be delivered.

19. Arrangement.—The usual arrangement of these different parts is shown in the diagram, Fig. 8, and the specimen letters under Exercises I and II. Study these forms until you have a vivid mental picture of them.

20. Directions for Exercises I and II.—Copy the Letter of Application for a Clerkship and mark it Exercise I. Then copy the letter designated A Clerk's Letter of Inquiry and mark it Exercise II.

Notice carefully the capital letters, the punctuation marks, and the place where the lines of writing begin and end. Begin with capital letters the names of persons, as *Mr. Samuel Sterner, Rev. Robert Barnes, Chas. B. Kelley, Isaac B. Raymond,* and *Robert W. Marsh;* the names of firms, as *Messrs. J. L. Pursel and Sons,* and *Messrs. Sykes & Skeers;* the names of streets, towns, and cities, as *Walnut, Norfolk, Baltimore, Moosic, Scranton;* and the abbreviations indicating the names of states, etc., as *Pa., Va.,* and *Md.* Also, be sure to place a period after each abbreviation, as *Pa., Messrs., Chas., St., Va., Mr., Md.,* etc. Write these letters as neatly and as accurately as possible.

THE MAKE-UP OF THE LETTER

21. The appearance of a letter has much to do with its reception. A well-written, well-arranged letter will immediately create a favorable impression, and be much more likely to receive attention than one that looks untidy and is poorly arranged. Appearance is not so important as good composition, but appearance is generally accepted as a sign of valuable

qualities within. Therefore, the person who neglects appearance is unwise.

Do you desire your letters to create a favorable impression? If so, observe closely the explanations and models given, for they will prove of service.

AN APPLICATION FOR A CLERKSHIP

EXERCISE I

Moosic, Pa., Jan. 5, 1920.

Messrs. J. L. Pursel & Sons,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Please consider me an applicant for a situation as clerk in the grocery department of your store. I have been employed for the past ten weeks in the store of H. Samuel Sterner of West Pittston, in the place of his regular clerk who has now returned.

I am twenty-three years old, strong and healthy, and have a good common-school education. I have the privilege of respectfully referring you to H. S. Sterner and to my pastor, Rev. Robert Barnes, of Moosic.

I hope that you will consider my application favorably and I assure you that I will try to prove efficient.

Yours respectfully,
Chas. P. Kelley.

A CLERK'S LETTER OF INQUIRY

EXERCISE II

608 Walnut St., Norfolk, Va.,
July 5, 1920.

Mr. Isaac B. Raymond,
Messrs. Sykes & Sheers,
Wholesale Grocers,
Baltimore, Md.

My dear Sir:

Doubtless you will readily recall me as the clerk in Mr. H. L. Anderson's grocery store whom you met on your recent trip to our city.

I have been clerking for Mr. Anderson during the last four years. I now desire to qualify myself for a position as advertising man. After suitable preparation I shall hope to obtain a situation in which I may handle the advertising of a reliable firm in some line, preferably that of groceries. My present experience is limited to that line of goods.

I have completed the grammar school course of study in the public schools of Norfolk, and have also taken a special course in bookkeeping, penmanship, and the common English branches.

My purpose in writing this letter is to ask if you will please tell me what additional preparation I may probably need, and where I can obtain it most rapidly and economically.

I take the liberty of writing to you about this matter of much importance to me, because of the friendly relations that have grown up between us in the last few months.

Yours very respectfully,
Robert W. Marsh.

USAGE IN LETTER WRITING

22. Usage with respect to the arrangement and punctuation of the parts of a letter varies somewhat. This is largely due to the introduction of the typewriter, for in many instances it has been found that certain forms which have recently come into use can be written on the typewriter more readily and rapidly than some of the older established forms. The older forms are always in good taste, however, and in some instances are preferable in handwriting.

Perhaps the best way to fix these parts in your mind is for you to examine closely several illustrations. Note with extreme care the arrangement, punctuation, capitalization, of these parts. Then adopt, as your own, one of the styles illustrated, and use that style consistently.

THE HEADING

23. The **heading** includes the address of the writer and the date, and should be placed in the upper right-hand corner of the first page of the letter, an inch or so from the top and a short distance from the right-hand edge. It may be arranged in one, two, or three lines, the number depending upon the length of the items and the size of the paper used. It is usually advisable to write the date on a line by itself.

24. Model Headings.—Notice the order of the items in the accompanying headings—street address, city or town, state, date. In no case should this order be changed.

Figs. 9 and 10 illustrate the arrangement and punctuation that is most prevalent and that has been in use for many years. In these forms, each line ends somewhat nearer the right-hand edge of the paper than does the preceding line. The parts of the heading are separated by commas. A period is placed after each abbreviation and at the end of the heading. Every word in the heading begins with a capital letter. This style is always regarded as good usage.

Figs. 11 and 12 illustrate the style advocated by some authorities—the omission of all punctuation marks except where they

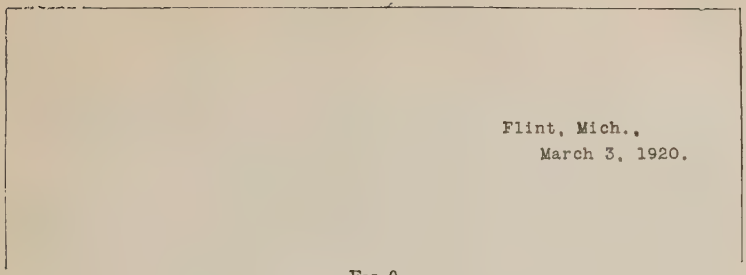


FIG. 9

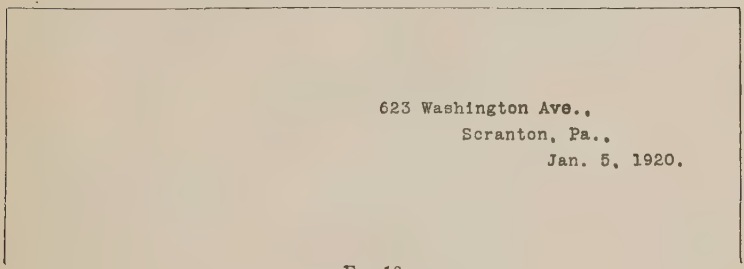


FIG. 10

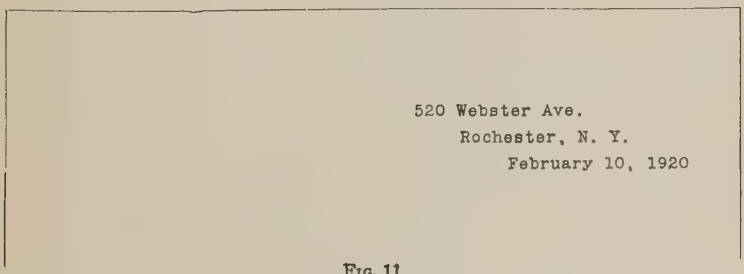


FIG. 11

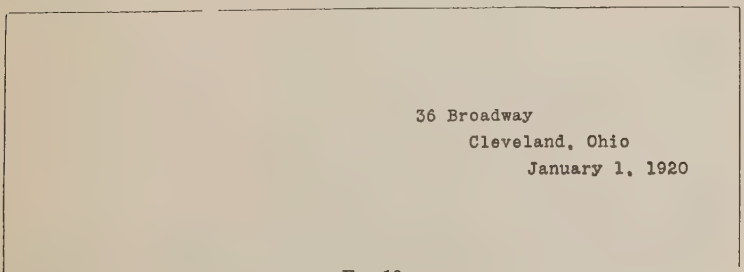


FIG. 12

are needed for clearness. Note that in these forms, periods appear after abbreviations only, and commas are used only when two or more items appear on the same line. No commas occur at the end of the lines and the period is omitted after the date. The practice of using this style is growing more general.

Figs. 13 and 14 illustrate what is known as the "block" style. In these forms each line begins immediately below the one above. The lines are not indented. This is especially suitable for typewritten letters.

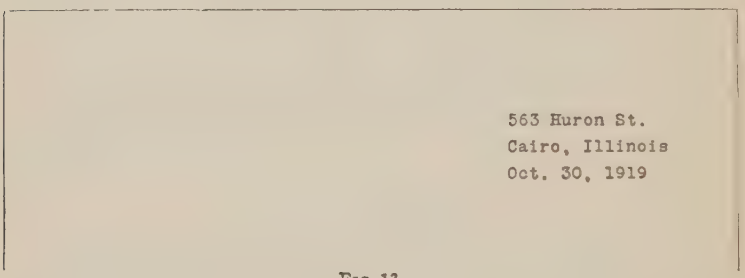


FIG. 13

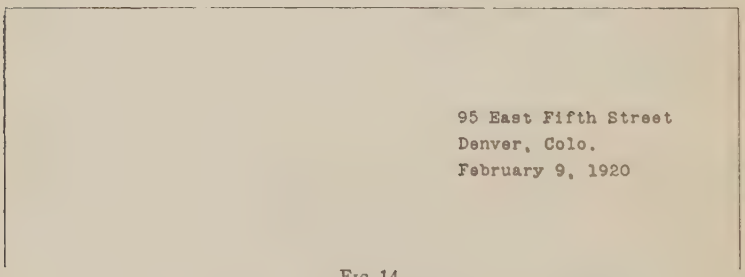


FIG. 14

25. Points to be observed in writing the heading:

1. Always date your letters.
2. Give your full address.
3. Do not crowd the items nor place them too near the edges of the sheet.
4. Be consistent in your punctuation.
5. Write the street number in figures and do not place the sign # nor the abbreviation *No.* before this number. *55 Penn*

Ave. is correct. *#55 Penn Ave., No. 55 Penn Ave.,* and *Fifty-five Penn Ave.* are wrong.

6. Never abbreviate the name of the city nor town. *Phila.* for *Philadelphia, Balt.* for *Baltimore,* etc., are not allowable.

7. Always give the name of the state, even in the case of large cities, for the names of many cities are duplicated in other states. The names of most of the states may be abbreviated, though some writers prefer to give the name in full. The accompanying list shows the abbreviations approved by the postal authorities:

ABBREVIATIONS OF STATES

Alabama	Ala.	Nebraska	Nebr.
Arizona	Ariz.	Nevada	Nev.
Arkansas	Ark.	New Hampshire	N. H.
California	Calif.	New Jersey	N. J.
Canal Zone	C. Z.	New Mexico	N. Mex.
Colorado	Colo.	New York	N. Y.
Connecticut	Conn.	North Carolina	N. C.
Delaware	Del.	North Dakota	N. Dak.
District of Columbia	D. C.	Oklahoma	Okla.
Florida	Fla.	Pennsylvania	Pa.
Georgia	Ga.	Philippine Islands	P. I.
Illinois	Ill.	Porto Rico	P. R.
Indiana	Ind.	Rhode Island	R. I.
Kansas	Kans.	South Carolina	S. C.
Kentucky	Ky.	South Dakota	S. Dak.
Louisiana	La.	Tennessee	Tenn.
Maryland	Md.	Texas	Tex.
Massachusetts	Mass.	Vermont	Vt.
Michigan	Mich.	Virginia	Va.
Minnesota	Minn.	Washington	Wash.
Mississippi	Miss.	West Virginia	W. Va.
Missouri	Mo.	Wisconsin	Wis.
Montana	Mont.	Wyoming	Wyo.

The following should not be abbreviated: Alaska, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Ohio, Oregon, Samoa, and Utah.

26. Directions for Exercise III.—Write correctly the eight headings given in Exercise III. Arrange each heading in two or three lines and have the items end near the right-hand edge of the paper. Be careful to supply all necessary capital letters, commas, and periods.

EXERCISE III

WRITING THE HEADING OF THE LETTER

1. 196 main ave hartford conn oct 9 1919
2. wheeling w va jan 1 1920
3. 49 broadway san antonio texas march 3 1920
4. box 504 pittsburgh pa feb 28 1920
5. williams college williamstown mass august 21 1919
6. 84 cedar ave scranton pa dec 25 1919
7. 915 west seventh st cleveland ohio july 14 1919
8. 520 pennsylvania avenue washington d c may 31 1918

THE ADDRESS

27. The **address** includes the name, title, and address of the person to whom the letter is written, and may occupy two, three, or four lines. It begins a little below the level of the heading and at the same distance from the left edge of the sheet as the written page, or the body of the letter, is to be. The first line contains the name and title, unless the latter is long, in which case it may be written on the second line. The next line contains the street and number or other local address, followed on the line below by the name of the city or town and the state or country. The following are examples:

MARGINAL LINE

R. Jackson Smith, Esq.,
804 Connell Building,
Scranton, Pa.

Rev. E. S. Jones, D. D.,
204 Elm Ave.,
Rochester, N. Y.

In the address, as in the heading, punctuation may be omitted at the end of the line, except in the case of a period after an abbreviation, or it may be used. The method adopted should conform to that used in the heading.

Examples of different ways of arranging the address are given in Figs. 15 to 20. Note them carefully.

28. Points to be observed in the address:

1. Do not omit the name of the town, city, or state.
2. Avoid all abbreviations of titles preceding the name except *Mr., Mrs., Messrs.,* and *Dr.*
3. Do not use *Mr.* and *Esq.* with the same name.
4. Never use the word *City* instead of the name of the place.

THE SALUTATION

29. The **salutation** is placed at the left-hand margin, just below the address, and varies with the form of the letter and the relation between the writer and the recipient of the letter. *Sir* and *Madam* are suitable for formal letters only. In business letters where the relation between the writer and the reader of the letter is not very close, *Dear Sir* is generally used in writing to a man, *Dear Madam* in writing to a woman, *Gentlemen* in writing to several men or to a firm, and *Ladies* or *Mesdames* in writing to several women or to a firm composed of women. *Dear Sirs* is no longer considered in good taste and *Gents* should never be used. The name of the person addressed may be included in the salutation; as, *Dear Mr. Smith,* in the case of personal acquaintances. *Friend Smith* is not good. Prefixing *My* to the salutation makes it more formal; as, *My dear Sir, My dear Mr. Smith.* Note that in these cases *dear* is not capitalized.

The salutation is generally followed by the colon (:); as, *Dear Sir:* though in informal letters the comma may be used; as, *Dear Tom,*..... Do not write a name alone above the salutation; as,

Mr. John Jones,
Dear Sir:

and do not use a name alone as a salutation; as, *Mr. John Jones. My dear Mr. Jones* is right.

Never use any abbreviation in the salutation, except *Mr., Mrs.,* or *Dr.*

MODELS OF LETTER HEADINGS, ADDRESSES, AND SALUTATIONS

30. Figs. 15 to 20, inclusive, illustrate the proper arrangement of the heading, the address, and the salutation.

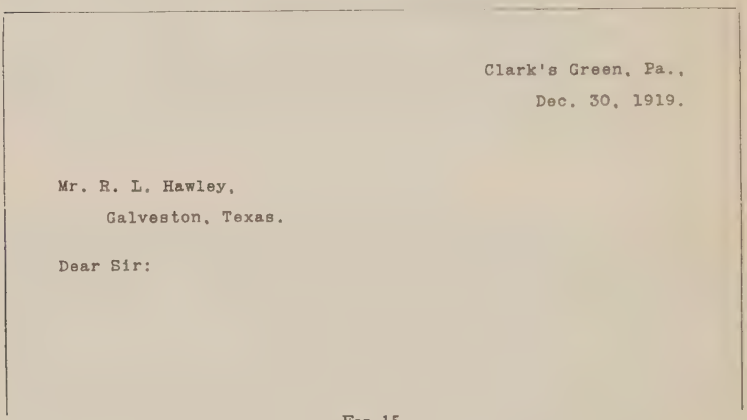


FIG. 15

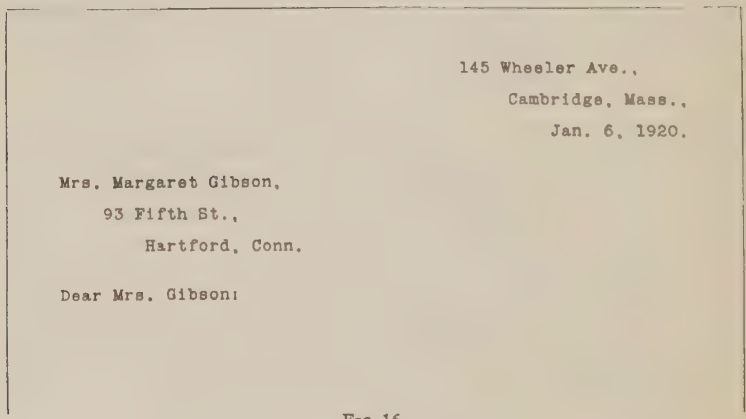


FIG. 16

Figs. 15 and 16 illustrate the use of punctuation marks at the end of each line of the heading and of the address.

Figs. 17 and 18 show correct forms of the heading and the address with all marks of punctuation omitted except the

Williams College
Williamstown, Mass.
January 30, 1920

Sears, Roebuck and Company
Chicago, Illinois

Gentlemen:

FIG. 17

1315 Monsey Ave.
Philadelphia, Pa.
Dec. 30, 1919

Miss Grace Spencer
45 Main St.
Boston, Mass.

Dear Miss Spencer:

FIG. 18

Oakwood Place,
Cambridge, N. Y.,
Nov. 17, 1919.

Mr. J. W. Hunt,
Superintendent of Schools,
1381 Broadway,
Albany, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

FIG. 19

periods after the abbreviations and the commas separating items written on the same line.

16 Glen Avenue
Schenectady, N. Y.
April 2, 1920

Mrs. A. H. Sutton
683 Summit Road
Jersey City, N. J.

Dear Madam:

FIG. 20

Figs. 19 and 20 illustrate the *block* style. Note how consistent is the punctuation and arrangement.

31. Directions for Exercise IV. — Write the six addresses given in Exercise IV. In each case, supply the salutation that would be proper. Make certain that your work is correct as to arrangement, punctuation, and use of capital letters. Draw lines to indicate the edges of the letter paper.

EXERCISE IV

WRITING THE ADDRESS AND THE SALUTATION

1. mr e m stack continental hotel cincinnati ohio
2. jones smith and knapp attorneys wells building wilkes-barre pa
3. mrs george n harvey 113 olive st washington ill
4. mr john allison 28 benton road springfield mass
5. charles richard perry cashier first national bank 25 pennsylvania avenue washington d c
6. miss dorothy m harper 493 fifth avenue buffalo n y

THE BODY OF THE LETTER

32. The body of the letter contains the message, and begins on the line below the salutation, and just to the right of it. Succeeding paragraphs should begin at the same distance from the margin. The width of the margin should be such as will give a good display to the body of the letter, and may vary from ½ inch to 1 inch. Whatever width is used, it should be uniform throughout the letter. A short letter may have wide margins, and plenty of space at the top and bottom of the page.

In business letters, only one side of the letter sheet should be used. If the letter requires more than one page, only the first page should have a letterhead. The paper in all pages should be of uniform size and quality. The letter should be so arranged that the last page will contain at least one or two lines besides the complimentary close and the signature. When *note paper* is used, all four pages of the sheet may be written on. If only two pages are needed for the letter, the first and third pages may be used and the second page left blank. If more than two pages are used, they should be written on in the regular order; that is, 1, 2, 3, 4.

33. Points to be observed in the body of the letter:

1. Preserve a liberal margin at the left-hand side of the paper, and keep this margin of uniform width. A margin at the right, even though it may be irregular, gives a much better appearance to the page than do lines crowding well to the edge.

2. If your letter is short, be careful not to crowd the writing into the upper part of the sheet. Begin the heading lower down on the page and shorten the lines somewhat. On the other hand, do not crowd the closing lines merely to avoid writing on another sheet. Aim to produce a well-balanced attractive-looking page.

3. Take pains with your punctuation, your spelling, and your capitalization. A poorly punctuated letter filled with misspelled words or words incorrectly capitalized causes the

reader to have an unfavorable impression of its writer and weakens the effect of the letter.

4. Avoid cheap and time-worn openings. Be direct and simple. Eliminate from your letters all such expressions as those mentioned under the heading Stock Phrases immediately following this Article.

5. Make your sentences clear and concise but be sure to use all necessary words. Write *Your letter reached me this morning,* not *Yours reached me this morning.* Say *I shall be able,* not merely *Shall be able,* etc.

6. Be courteous. Courtesy includes polite phrasing and excludes indications of haste and carelessness. Don't forget to dot your i's and cross your t's. Above all, take pains with your writing, for scrawling penmanship is really a sign of discourtesy.

STOCK PHRASES

34. Many words and phrases that occur frequently in business letters are objectionable, because they tend to give the letter a cold and impersonal tone that greatly lessens its effectiveness, and in most cases they do not convey clearly the meaning of the writer. The best letter writers nowadays carefully avoid these worn-out expressions, realizing that they tend to destroy the personality of a letter. Constant reference to the following list is advised, until all of the stock phrases included have been discarded by you in your letters.

Advise: Overused in business letters. Better use *inform* or *tell,* unless you refer to the actual giving of advice. Instead of saying *Advise us when you can ship,* say *Inform,* or *tell, us when you can ship.*

As per: Of legal origin, like many other stock phrases. *According to* is better. For instance, instead of *As per your order,* say *According to your order.*

At all times or **at this time:** Superfluous phrases that generally are meaningless. For example, *At this time we are sending you a copy,* etc. Omit the expression *at this time.*

At hand or **has come to hand:** Instead of saying *Your letter has come to hand,* say *Your letter has been*

received, or *We have received your letter.* Better still, start with your real message.

Beg: Phrases like *We beg to state* are relics of the elaborate courtesy that was in fashion a century or so ago in both business letters and social letters. In modern correspondence they have no place.

Complaint: A word that should be avoided, because it has an ugly sound. Never tell any one that he has written a letter of complaint; better refer to it as a request for adjustment.

Contents carefully noted: Means nothing, and is therefore superfluous.

Esteemed: Such expressions as *Your esteemed order* are obsolete.

Favor: Not proper unless you refer to an act of kindness. *Your favor has been received* should be *Your letter has been received.*

Hand you: *We hand you herewith our check* should be *We send you your check* or *Enclosed you will find a check.*

Herewith: This word means *with this,* and therefore in such expressions as *We enclose herewith* is superfluous.

Inst., ult., prox.: These abbreviations of the Latin words *instant, ultimo,* and *proximo* are used in legal documents, meaning, respectively, the present month, last month, and next month. In letters, the month should be designated by its name.

Kind: Out of place when used to describe an ordinary letter or order, as *your kind order* or *your kind favor.*

Line: Sometimes incorrectly used in the sense of kind or business, as *What line of business are you in now?* and in such expressions as *Do you have anything in the calendar line?* Say *What business are you in now?* or *In what kind of business are you now working? Do you sell calendars?* or *Have you any calendars?*

Lot: Often wrongly used in the sense of a great number, as *A lot of big business houses use this machine.* Better say *Many big business houses.*

Oblige: Out of date in such expressions as *and oblige, Yours very truly.*

Our Mr. Smith: Meaning our salesman, engineer, or representative, Mr. Smith. If his name does not sufficiently identify him, better use his real title.

Miss: The title *Miss* must be followed by the name. *My dear Miss* is wrong; *My dear Miss Benton* is right.

Necessary Words Omitted, as in *Goods received; will send check at once,* tend to give a letter a curt tone that does not make a favorable impression on the reader. Better say *We have received the goods, and we shall send a check at once.*

Party: Often used when some such word as *person* would be proper. *The party that ordered the goods* is wrong. *The person that ordered the goods* is right.

Posted: Used sometimes where some such word as *informed* would be better, as *He was well posted on the process of smelting copper. Well informed* is better.

Recent date: A vague phrase. If the letter needs to be identified, mention its date or subject, as *Your letter quoting prices on Atlas Cement,* or *Your letter of August 18th.*

Same: *We received the goods and found same satisfactory* is not good; *and found them satisfactory* is better. *It, they, them,* or some other equivalent can always be substituted for this overused word.

State: Is not so good as *say* in such phrases as *In your letter you state that .....* The difference here is slight, but *say* is less formal and stiff, and it is therefore preferable.

Valued: A formal word that really means nothing in such phrases as *Your valued order,* and might better be omitted.

Writer: Used to avoid the use of *I* or *me,* as *The writer was glad to receive your letter.* Much better here would be *I was glad to receive your letter.*

Would say or **wish to say:** An out-of-date expression, as in the sentence *In reply to your letter, would say.* Begin your letter by saying what you have to say without any unnecessary introduction.

THE BLOCK STYLE

35. Many business houses now require their typists to begin each line of the address, the salutation, and the body of the letter at the marginal line in what is known as the "block style." The paragraphs are thus separated by double spaces in

702 Penn Ave.
Scranton, Pa.
February 10
1 9 2 0

The Brown Grocery Company
7 North Seventh St.
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Mr. James King, your head bookkeeper, has informed me that you are in need of a clerk in your Suburban Store. Please consider me an applicant for the position.

My understanding is that you want a man who has had practical experience in the grocery business, is familiar with various methods of service, and is able to make sales successfully. I believe that my experience and training have fitted me to meet your requirements

I am 28 years of age, my habits are good and my health is excellent. I was employed by the South River Grocery Company of Wilkes-Barre, Pa., for three years. Four years ago I came to Scranton and entered the employ of Mr. B. J. Wright as head clerk in the grocery department of his store on Ridge Ave. As you know, Mr. Wright recently retired from business. This leaves me out of employment and is my reason for applying for a position with you.

As to my ability and success, I am permitted to refer to the South River Grocery Company, 44 Park St., Wilkes-Barre, Pa., and to Mr. B. J. Wright, 424 Spring Ave., Scranton, Pa. For references as to my character, I respectfully refer you to Rev. Wm. Brice, 1706 Hill St., and to Mr. James T. Moore, 76 Ross St., both of this city.

If you will telephone to me at 74 J, I shall be glad to call at your store at any time convenient to you.

Respectfully yours,

James J. Towne

FIG. 21

order that they may be easily distinguished. This form is shown in the letter of application shown in Fig. 21, and may be recommended for typewritten letters. It should not be used in handwritten letters, however, for the paragraphs of handwriting are not so easily distinguished as are those in typewritten matter.

THE COMPLIMENTARY CLOSE

36. The **complimentary close** occurs a space below the body of the letter and begins at about the middle of the line. It should correspond in style to the salutation. For instance, it would be wrong to use with a formal salutation like *My dear Sir* a familiar ending like *Yours most cordially*. The form of complimentary close that is best is determined by the nature of the letter and the relations existing between the writer and the recipient.

Respectfully yours or *Yours very respectfully* is the close corresponding to *Sir, Madam,* etc. in the salutation. *Dear Sir, Dear Madam, Gentlemen,* and similar salutations, call for *Yours truly, Yours sincerely, Yours respectfully,* or some similar closing. *Yours respectfully* is especially suitable in letters to superiors.

Only the first word of the close is capitalized, and no abbreviations should be used; as, *Yrs. truly, Yours,* etc. The close should be followed by a comma (,) and should not be preceded by such phrases as *I am, Believe me, I beg to remain,* and *Hoping to hear from you soon. Hoping to be able to serve you* is by no means so strong as *We hope to be able to serve you.*

THE SIGNATURE

37. The **signature** should come on the next line after the complimentary close and should be so placed as to end near the right-hand margin. In regard to the signature, two points should be observed: (1) Write the name in full; as, James Y. Oliver; (2) make the signature legible.

As a rule, no title should either precede or follow the signature, though a person acting in an official capacity may often properly indicate his position; thus,

Alexander Williams
General Manager

In a business letter, the writer should use the name he wishes his correspondent to use in his reply. For example, if he

desires the reply to be adressed to *John N. Harvey,* he should not sign his letter *J. N. Harvey* or merely *John Harvey.* He should sign it *John N. Harvey.*

A married woman may use her husband's name; as, Mrs. Samuel R. Hawley, or she may sign her own name, prefixing Mrs. in parentheses; as, (Mrs.) Ella Hawley. The latter form is used by widows. Sometimes this form is used: Ella Hawley (Mrs. Samuel R. Hawley). An unmarried woman should always prefix the title *Miss* within marks of parenthesis when signing a business letter.

Often a person signs for a firm. In such cases he should write his own name or initials on the line below, prefixing *by* or *per;* thus,

Parker and Butts,
per W. N. Butts.

When an official signs for a corporation, usually the official title of the signer is given; if so, *per* or *by* is omitted; as,

Smith and Jones Company,
W. A. Smith, President.

MODELS OF COMPLIMENTARY CLOSES AND SIGNATURES

38. Figs. 22, 23, 24, and 25 show how the complimentary close and the signature should be arranged. Figs. 26 and 27 show the arrangement of the different parts of a letter and

We shall give your order immediate attention, and ship the goods to you tomorrow.

Yours truly,
Henry J. White

FIG. 22

illustrate two different methods of punctuation at the ends of the lines in the heading, address, and signature. They should be carefully studied.

If you can come here for a personal interview, let us know.

Respectfully yours,
Overland Sales Company,
By *E. M. K.*

FIG. 23

We assure you we regret the delay, and hope it has not inconvenienced you seriously.

Very truly yours,
S. J. Smith, Pres.

FIG. 24

Send the seeds to me by express, but the rest of the order by freight.

Yours truly,
Mary A. Wood
(*Mrs. Henry C. Wood.*)

Signature of a married woman

FIG. 25

68 Poplar Ave.,
Scranton, Pa.,
Sept. 6, 1919.

The New Wall Paper Company,
132 River St.,
Pittston, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Kindly tell us what you can about the capability of Mr. Carl J. Uhl. He has applied to us for a position as inside salesman, and gave you as one of his references.

Very truly yours,
Beedle and Brown

This form illustrates the use of punctuation at the ends of lines in the heading, address, and signature.

FIG. 26

31 Union Square
Dover, Ohio
March 1, 1920

Henry, Elwood & Sisk
1016 Mainton Boulevard
Portland, Oregon

Gentlemen:

Unless you hear from me to the contrary, you may expect me to report ready for work on December 1st.

Sincerely yours,
S. R. McHale

This form illustrates the omission of punctuation at the ends of lines in the heading, address, and signature.

FIG. 27

39. Directions for Exercise V.—Arrange properly the headings, the addresses, the salutations, the given words of the body, the complimentary close, and the signature, of the six letters given in Exercise V. Supply all necessary capital letters, commas, and periods. Arrange these letters as shown in Fig. 26 or Fig. 27.

EXERCISE V

1. memphis tenn dec 13 1919 mr n s yost care of jones brothers and company mobile ala dear sir when do you expect to make another trip to our city we desire to place with you an order for ***** please write us by return mail so that we may know when to expect you yours truly brown and company per s i dale

2. vincennes ind mar 13 1918 messrs williams and company cairo ill gentlemen in accordance with your request we are sending *** thank you for your inquiry we hope to receive an order from you truly yours haskins and dale

3. williamsport pa dec 17 1919 mr o b daniels muncy pa dear sir please send me not later than next saturday morning via adams express 4 doz eggs 12 lb butter *** kindly fill this order with your usual care and promptness and inclose bill with shipment yours truly e m sickle

4. pensacola fla feb 17 1920 rev wm b antrim pittston pa dear doctor antrim may we have the pleasure of *** we look forward to a very pleasant time with you very sincerely yours wm b monroe

5. colchester vt jan 21 1920 nathaniel r jasper esq 426 arcade building burlington vt dear sir enclosed you will find an itemized statement *** I shall be pleased if you will give this matter prompt and careful attention yours very truly j a may

6. 608 yates avenue chicago ill april 10 1919 mrs c m brewster cody neb dear mrs brewster in your letter of april 5th you ordered *** if we can be of further service please tell us yours truly the gould brown company

---

FOLDING THE LETTER

40. The **folding of a letter** is of no little importance, as by it the writer often reveals intelligence and neatness or the lack of them. Take time to fold your letter neatly and carefully. See that it is adjusted to the envelope, and that no indication of an absence of neatness, order, or system be observable. Be sure that the edges are even and that the folds are pressed down flat so as to give the letter a tidy appearance. A paper knife is to be preferred to the thumb or fingers in making the folds. The illustrations here given show the proper methods of folding for note sheets and letter paper.

To fold a note sheet, usually only one fold is necessary, from the bottom to the top, as shown in Fig. 28.

When using *letter paper* (about 8 in.×10 in.), place the letter before you, turn the lower edge up to within about one-

half inch of the top edge and crease it. Pull the right-hand edge toward you, turn it up about two-thirds of the way to the

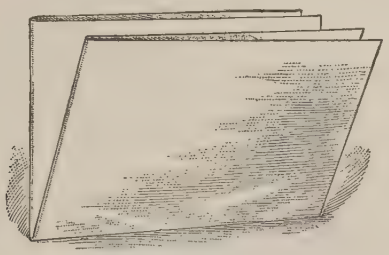


Fig. 28

top and crease it. Bring the top edge down to this crease and crease again. Your letter is thus folded into two parts, then

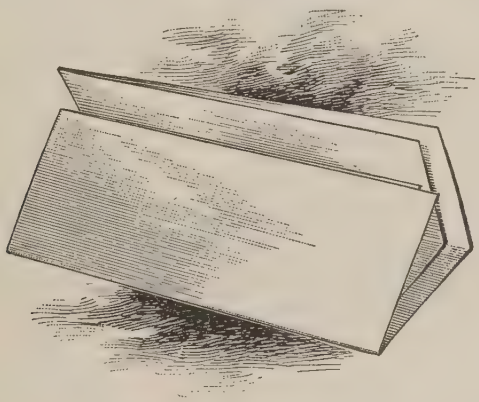


Fig. 29

into three parts, as shown in Fig. 29, and is ready for the envelope.

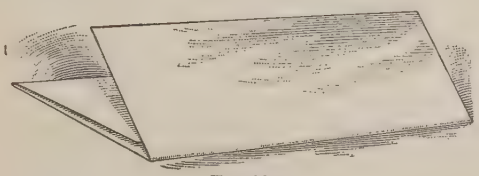


Fig. 30

When an official envelope is used for a letter sheet, fold the top of the sheet downwards and the bottom upwards, as in

Fig. 30, thus dividing the sheet into three nearly equal sections. The writing will then be concealed. The letter is then inserted in the envelope with the folded edge down.

Small enclosures, like checks, receipts, etc., are laid on the sheet and folded with it. If placed in the envelope separately, the enclosure is liable to be cut or torn when the letter is opened, or it may be overlooked when the letter is removed. Larger enclosures are folded separately. Fig. 31 shows the proper method of placing a small enclosure in a letter.

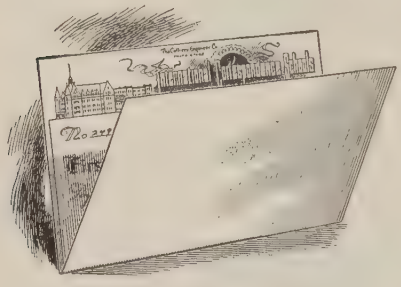


Fig. 31

41. The Insertion of the Letter.—To insert the letter properly, take the envelope in the left hand with the opening to the right and the face down. Insert the folded letter with the right hand, putting in the last-folded edge first. Form the habit of sealing the envelope as soon as the letter has been inserted, and of addressing the envelope before inserting the letter.

The envelope should be opened by cutting or tearing open the top edge; then if the letter sheet has been properly inserted, it will, when removed, be right side up.

THE ENVELOPE ADDRESS

42. The address on the envelope is similar to the address at the beginning of the letter and is the one for the postmaster or the mail-carrier to note. Usually it occupies the lower half of the envelope and may consist of two, three, or four lines. The items should be given in regular order: name, street or local address, city, state. The punctuation used should conform to that used in the heading and the inside address. If these contain punctuation marks at the end of the lines, the envelope address should also have punctuation marks at the end of each line. If the punctuation marks are omitted

at the ends of the lines in the heading and inside address, they should also be omitted at the ends of the lines in the envelope address.

43. Points to be observed:

1. Have your envelope correspond in size, quality, and color with the paper used for your letter.
2. See that your envelope is right side up before you address it.
3. Write plainly and give the address in full. Do not use the word *City* for the name of the place to which the letter is to be sent.
4. Place the stamp properly and firmly. It should be in the upper right-hand corner and should be right side up.
5. If the letter contains anything of importance, write your address in the upper left-hand corner. (See Figs. 32, 35, 36, and 37.)
6. Never mail a letter without first making certain that the envelope is sealed and properly addressed and stamped.

MODEL ENVELOPE ADDRESSES

44. Note carefully the arrangement of the various items in the following illustrations. In Figs. 32 and 33, punctuation is

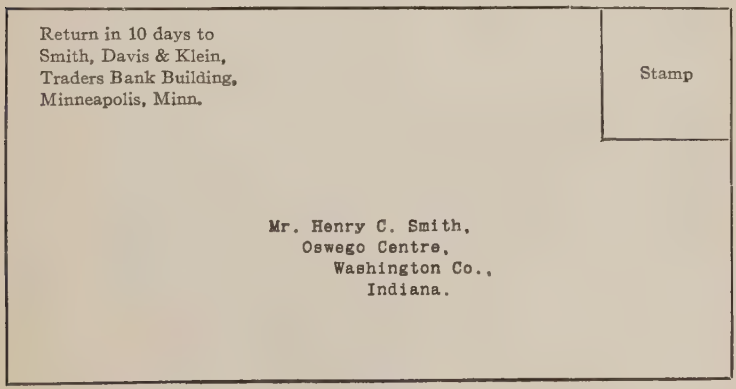


FIG. 32

used at the ends of the lines. In Figs. 34 and 35, no punctuation is used. Figs. 36 and 37 illustrate the *block* style.

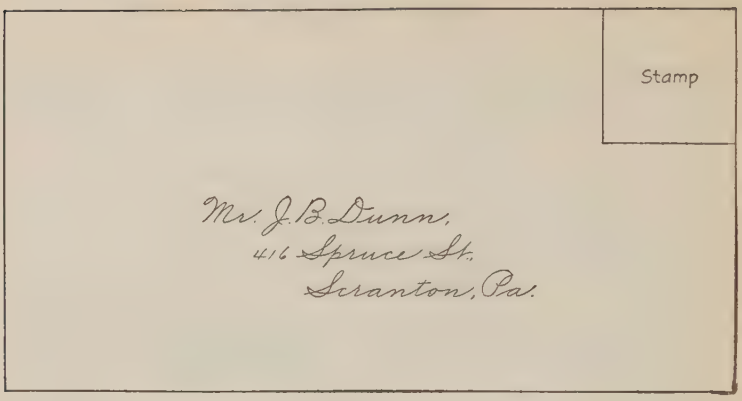


FIG. 33

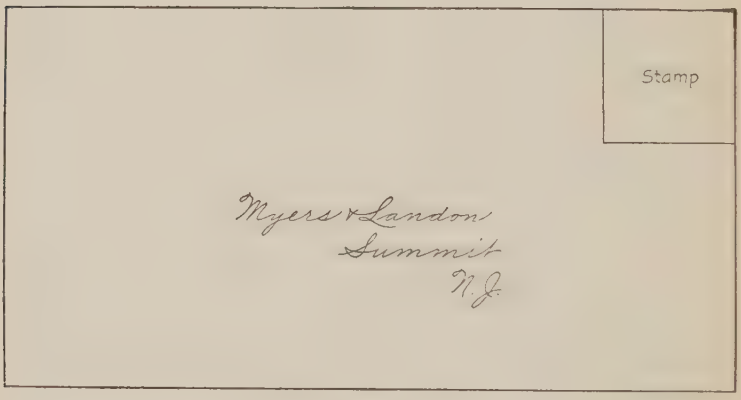


FIG. 34

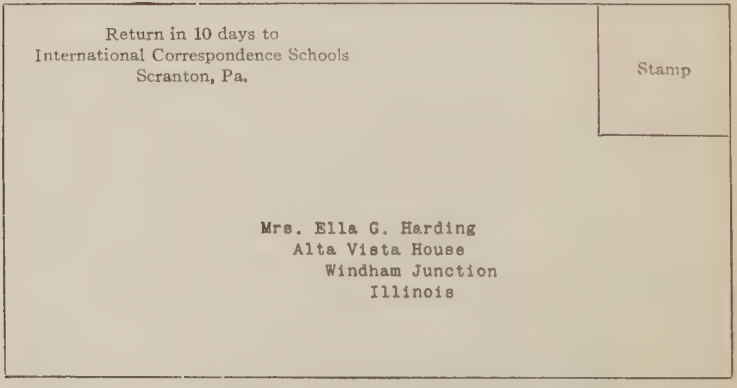


FIG. 35

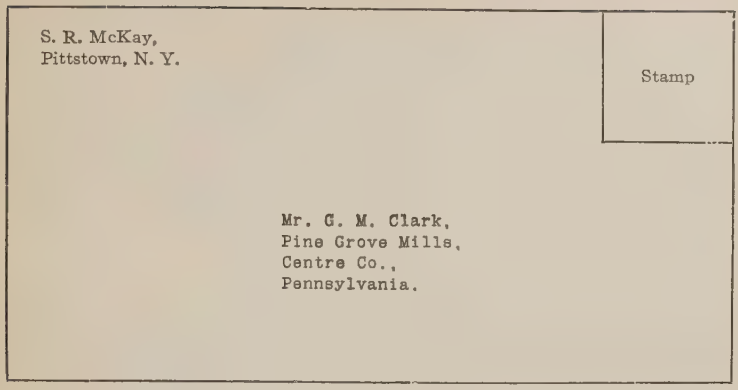


FIG. 36

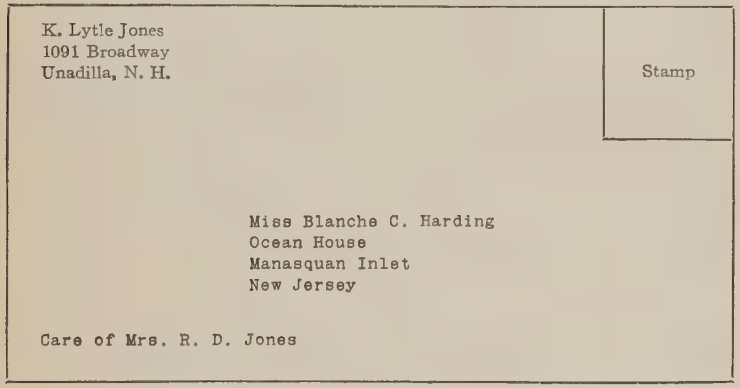


FIG. 37

45. Directions for Exercise VI.—Make seven outlines of an envelope and write within them the seven addresses given in Exercise VI. Supply all necessary capital letters, commas, and periods.

EXERCISE VI

1. mr john m patterson fourth and maple sts memphis tenn
2. hon s h rhodes the crags amesbury w va
3. miss emily burrows queen's rest hotel minneapolis minn
4. rev asa a neal the manse binghamton n y

5. messrs todd & earl attorneys room 412 coal exchange milwaukee wis
6. r b hastings and son 63 dowd building schenectady n y
7. mrs theodore r searles 702 madison st sandusky ohio

46. Directions for Exercise VII.—Arrange properly the letter in Exercise VII and then address the envelope required for this letter. Supply all necessary marks of punctuation.

EXERCISE VII

520 Lackawanna Avenue Scranton Pa Jan 15 1920 Mr William Black 25 West Chenango St Binghamton N Y Dear Sir We thank you for your order of Jan 14th and your check for fifteen dollars We are sending the articles today, by express, charges prepaid You will find enclosed a receipted bill Very truly yours Hagen Williams and Company

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK UNTIL ANOTHER LESSON IS READY.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 2)

WORDS

1. Importance of Knowing Words.—We spend much of our time in communicating our thoughts to others, either in speech or in writing. We do this by means of words, for words are the signs or symbols of ideas.

Since words are our chief means of communication, it is necessary that we train ourselves to use them properly and that we have an adequate word supply. It is true that many persons get along with a limited and imperfect word equipment, but their success would be far greater were they able to express themselves correctly and convincingly. Every one is judged by his speech.

An understanding of a word includes a knowledge of its correct spelling, proper pronunciation, and various meanings and uses. In these lessons you will be shown how to make words your own, so that you need not misspell them, mispronounce them, misuse them. Follow the suggestions given and you should improve greatly in your command of words.

A mastery of words cannot be gained at once. A good beginning is made however, when a person realizes the necessity of increasing his word store and then follows some systematic plan for increasing it.

2. The Dictionary.—The English language is made up of hundreds of thousands of words; it is not necessary, however, for any person to become familiar with all of them. The

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

average person, it is estimated, uses about five thousand. These then are the words you are most likely to hear and to see, and the ones with which you should become familiar.

Where can you find information concerning these words? The dictionary is the most important reference book on words, for it gives in a clear, concise, logical manner the information that is usually desired or needed. You will find that the Winston Simplified Dictionary furnished with your Course is one of the most helpful books you can possess. Form the habit of consulting this dictionary. Make it your friend. Use it freely, for it will tell you exactly what you need to know.

PRONUNCIATION

CORRECT PRONUNCIATION

3. Have you ever noticed the speech of those with whom you associate, and considered how differently the different persons pronounce certain words? Some enunciate the words clearly and correctly, while others slur over them so that you have difficulty in understanding what is said.

You will be judged by your speech. If you mumble your words, clip your syllables, run your words together, misplace the accent, or make other mistakes in your pronunciation, you may be criticized as careless or ignorant. Clear enunciation and correct pronunciation are regarded as signs of education and refinement, for educated men and women try to speak correctly and distinctly.

4. Causes of Mispronunciation of Words.—Mispronunciation of words is generally due to the following causes:

1. Habits formed in pronouncing a foreign language may be carried over into English. Usually the rules for the pronunciation of words in one language do not apply to another language. Those whose friends use a foreign language need to watch their speech with especial care.

2. Often the right sounds fail to make the proper impression on the ear, because it has become so accustomed to hear-

ing the sounds of another language that it cannot hear accurately a pure English sound. This is especially true of those who try to "pick up" the language instead of learning it from some competent teacher.

3. Physical defects, such as lack of all the teeth or of part of them, adenoids, diseases of the ear or of the throat, may hinder correct pronunciation. In such a case, consult your doctor.

4. The influence of the street has much to do with incorrect pronunciation. Here words are probably mispronounced more often than they are pronounced correctly, and many persons fall under this influence without being conscious of doing so.

5. Indifference or carelessness may operate with the causes just mentioned to form incorrect habits of pronunciation.

5. Correction of Errors.—Most persons do not have difficulty in pronouncing a word correctly when their attention has been called to an error. For those who have trouble, persistent effort will do much in helping to correct the most careless habits in this direction. Some of the best methods to pursue in overcoming this habit are:

1. Constantly train the ear to detect variations in the sounds of words.

2. Imitate the pronunciation of good authorities; that is, persons who have received proper training in this matter and who, therefore, are likely to use correct forms.

3. Determine from your dictionary the pronunciation of words of which you are uncertain and of words with which you are unfamiliar.

4. Be critical of your own pronunciation and determine by comparison with good authorities whether you use words that you habitually mispronounce. Train your eye, your ear, your tongue, to take pains.

5. Make a list of the words you commonly mispronounce, and review these words frequently, saying them aloud until you have become familiar with their proper sounds.

As pronunciation depends on the sounds that are given to the letters of words, it is important that you know what sounds the

various letters represent. Much instruction in matters of this kind is given in the articles that follow, and it should enable you to determine the correct pronunciation of the words you use or desire to use.

VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

6. There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet, and each letter represents one or more sounds. With respect to the sounds which letters represent, they are classified as vowels and consonants.

7. Definition.—A **vowel** is a letter that represents a sound uttered without obstruction from the lips or teeth.

The letters *a, e, i, o,* and *u* are the vowels, for they are produced by a continuous passage of the breath. The letter *y* is a vowel when it has one of the sounds of *i*, as in *fly, nymph, myrtle.*

8. Definition.—A letter that represents a sound more or less obstructed by the lips, the teeth, or the tongue, is a **consonant.**

The consonants include all the letters of the alphabet except the vowels.

9. The best way to learn the distinction between vowels and consonants is to note the way they are produced. First, say over slowly to yourself each one of the vowels. Note that the lips, the teeth, and the tongue are not employed, but the sound is produced in the throat by the vocal chords and passes through the mouth with little interference. Then repeat the consonants to yourself. In saying each one slowly you will observe that the sound is obstructed in some way as it comes through the mouth. Thus the sound of *b* is produced mainly by the lips, *c* and *d* are formed chiefly by the tongue and the teeth, while *f* is produced by the teeth and the lips

There are two important facts to be remembered about the words in the English language:

1. Every one, with the exception of the words *a, I,* and *O,* consists of two or more letters.

2. Each contains at least one vowel, because consonants alone cannot be combined to form a word. For example, it is impossible to pronounce the letters *c* and *n* to make the word *can* without giving the sound of the vowel *a* with them.

10. The sounds of a consonant do not vary greatly. Thus, the letter *b* has a similar sound in every word in which it occurs; as, *boy, knob, rob.* For this reason the consonant sounds are easily learned and do not, as a rule, cause much trouble in pronunciation. The principal consonants which vary in sound are shown in the following table:

c, like k, as in *cat.*
c, like s, as in *cent.*
g, hard, as in *go.*
g, like j, as in *age.*
ṅ, like ṅg, as in *ink.*
s, like z, as in *has.*

11. Each of the vowels, however, has several sounds, which must be learned to insure correct pronunciation. These sounds are indicated by small marks which are seldom seen in writing or in printing but which are used in your dictionary to show how words should be pronounced. You will find these marks explained on pages xix and xx in the front part of your dictionary; but as they are so important in the study of pronunciation, the principal ones are included in this lesson, so that you may learn them more quickly.

A CHART OF VOWEL SOUNDS

12. Marked Sounds.—Read slowly the Marked Sounds in the Chart of Vowel Sounds, giving the correct sound of each vowel after each word and repeating this sound several times at the end of every line. In this way read each line aloud ten or more times, being careful to utter each vowel sound correctly. This you can do if you will pronounce each word slowly

CHART OF VOWEL SOUNDS

Marked Sounds

āte	ā	āpe	ā	fāde	ā	ā	ā	ā
ăt	ă	răn	ă	hăs	ă	ă	ă	ă
ärt	ä	ärm	ä	pälm	ä	ä	ä	ä
âir	â	câre	â	shâre	â	â	â	â
ȧsk	ȧ	grȧss	ȧ	dȧnce	ȧ	ȧ	ȧ	ȧ
mē	ē	ēve	ē	mēte	ē	ē	ē	ē
mĕt	ĕ	ĕnd	ĕ	lĕt	ĕ	ĕ	ĕ	ĕ
ev ēr	ē	pēr form	ē	read ēr	ē	ē	ē	ē
ĭce	ĭ	tĭme	ĭ	bĭnd	ĭ	ĭ	ĭ	ĭ
ĭt	ĭ	pĭn	ĭ	ĭnch	ĭ	ĭ	ĭ	ĭ
ōld	ō	hōme	ō	bōld	ō	ō	ō	ō
ŏn	ŏ	nŏt	ŏ	ŏdd	ŏ	ŏ	ŏ	ŏ
lôrd	ô	ôrb	ô	côrn	ô	ô	ô	ô
fo͞od	o͞o	mo͞on	o͞o	no͞on	o͞o	o͞o	o͞o	o͞o
fo͝ot	o͝o	wo͝ol	o͝o	go͝od	o͝o	o͝o	o͝o	o͝o
ūse	ū	mūte	ū	tūne	ū	ū	ū	ū
ŭp	ŭ	tŭb	ŭ	stŭdy	ŭ	ŭ	ŭ	ŭ
ûrn	û	fûrl	û	ûrge	û	û	û	û

Unmarked Sounds

oil	oi	toil	oi	boil	oi	oi	oi	oi
out	ou	our	ou	house	ou	ou	ou	ou

NOTE.—As a vowel, *y* has four sounds: *y*=ī, as in *style*; *y*=ĭ, as in *pĭt'y*; *y*=û, as in *myrrh*; *y*=ē, as in *zephyr*. In the dictionary these sounds of *y* are indicated by the equivalents here shown. For instance, *style* is given as *stīl*.

enough to separate the sound of the vowel from the sounds of the other letters. If you have any reason to believe that your pronunciation of the words is not accurate, have some one who understands the chart pronounce the words for you and assist you in acquiring the correct pronunciation of each sound.

A good way to determine whether you can give the sound that each of the marks indicates, is for you to cover all the chart except the four letters at the end of each line and utter each sound as it is marked. Do not say the letters in the order in which they occur here, but skip about until you have no trouble in producing the correct sound as soon as you see the way the letter is marked. Then try to think of the words that are given in the chart for each sound and give as many other

words to illustrate these sounds as come to your mind. For example, after you have said, ā, ā, ā, ā, pronounce the words *āte, āpe, fāde,* and as many other words of this kind as you can think of, as *cape, mate, hate, made, shade, babe, crave.*

13. Unmarked Sounds.—There are some vowels which, when used together, always represent the same combined sound. For this reason it is not necessary to represent by marks the sounds for which they stand. Such combinations are *oi, ou,* and *ow* shown in the Chart under the heading Unmarked Sounds. Others are shown under Diphthongs, pages xx and xxi of your dictionary. Learn these sounds as you learned the Marked Sounds, so that you are able to utter them apart from the words in which they occur, and can mention other words containing them.

14. Silent Vowels.—In many words one or more vowels are not sounded. Thus, in the words *līth(e), whĭstl(e), yē(a)st,* the sounded vowels are marked to show you how to pronounce the words. The vowels enclosed in the marks of parenthesis are silent.

15. Directions.—For Exercise I, copy the Chart of Vowel Sounds given in Art. **12,** being careful to mark the vowels just as they are marked there. Omit the dot over the letter *i* in writing this Chart (and in showing the sound of *i* in any exercise), for this dot should never be given when the sound of *i* is to be indicated.

SILENT AND SOUNDED VOWELS

16. Directions.—In Exercise II occur names of objects seen in the country. Learn to spell these words, then write them correctly and show the sound of each sounded vowel by the proper mark. Enclose the silent vowels in marks of parenthesis, ( ).

Explanation.—The first thing to be noticed in each word is the vowels that occur in it, for, as you have learned, pronunciation depends largely on the way the vowels are sounded. By pronouncing the word *briers* slowly, you can readily tell that the vowel *i* has the same sound as *ī in īce, tīme,* and *bīnd* in the Chart. Therefore, you should place a straight line above *i,* which will indicate that this vowel is pronounced

like the *i* in these words. The *e* has the sound of *ē* in *ēvēr* and *pērform* and should be marked like this letter, or *ē*. The letter *i* in the word *grindstone* is also pronounced like *i* in *īce, tīme, bīnd,* and should have a straight line above it to indicate this sound. The letter *o* has the same sound as *o* in *ōld, hōme, bōld,* and this should be shown by a straight line above the letter. The letter *e* is not sounded, and should be enclosed (e). The letters *g, r, n, d, s, t,* and *n* are consonants, and require no marks. Be careful not to mark the consonants, for if you do, we shall be unable to determine whether you have been careless in reading the directions, or you do not know the difference between vowels and consonants. The two words we have mentioned should be marked thus:

brīērs grīndstōn(e)

EXERCISE II

briers	grindstone	phosphate
chickens	horse	plain
farmer	knoll	potatoes
field	meadow	ridge
forest	pig sty	shrubs

SYLLABLES

17. Some words can be spoken with one impulse of the voice, as, *cake, bathe, field, plain.* However, most of the words in the English language require two or more impulses of the voice for their pronunciation; as, *chick-ens, farm-er, po-ta-to, ex-pla-na-tion.*

18. Definition.—**A syllable** is a word or a part of a word that can be spoken with a single impulse of the voice.

As the word *come* requires but one impulse of the voice for its pronunciation, it is a word of one syllable. The word *coming* requires two impulses, and is, therefore, a word of two syllables. Five impulses of the voice are necessary in speaking the word *pro-nun-ci-a-tion.*

19. You have already learned that a word cannot be formed from consonants alone. This is also true of syllables, for every syllable must contain at least one vowel. This vowel may stand alone, or it may be combined with one or more consonants. For example, *a* can be uttered as the first syllable of

the word *agent,* but it is impossible to utter the consonants *g, n,* and *t* to form the last syllable of this word without giving the sound of some vowel with them.

SOME NECESSARY WORDS GROUPED BY SYLLABLES

20. The words given in the following lists are words which occur in the speech of most persons. They are given here to help you see that words vary with regard to the number of syllables contained in them. Study these words, learning their spelling and their pronunciation. If you are uncertain concerning any of them, look them up in your dictionary.

One Syllable	Two Syllables	Three Syllables	Four Syllables
build	happy	potato	vegetable
knives	woman	foreigner	February
bake	cruel	underwear	intelligence
grass	angry	remember	pneumonia
game	today	government	Democratic
house	winter	tomorrow	remarkable
child	towel	several	exhibition
March	button	property	investigate
point	trying	yesterday	furiously
string	sister	employer	January

GROUPING WORDS ACCORDING TO THEIR SYLLABLES

21. Directions.—Group the words in Exercise III into four columns according to the number of syllables in each word. In the first column write those words of only one syllable; in the second column, those of two syllables; in the third column, those of three syllables; and in the fourth column, those of four or more syllables. Begin these words with small letters. After you have finished this Exercise, read the words aloud in order to be sure that you can pronounce them correctly and have counted aright the number of syllables in each word. You may use the dictionary.

Examples.—

One Syllable	Two Syllables	Three Syllables	Four or More Syllables
clerk	baker	accountant	agriculturist

EXERCISE III

SOME NAMES OF OCCUPATIONS

accountant	clergyman	maid	scout
agriculturist	clerk	merchant	servant
architect	cook	milliner	shoemaker
attorney	dressmaker	musician	stenographer
auctioneer	druggist	nurse	teamster
baker	farmer	policeman	trapper
blacksmith	journalist	physician	waitress
bookkeeper	judge	plumber	watchman
carpenter	machinist	salesman	weaver

A SALESMAN'S REPLY TO A CLERK'S LETTER

22. Directions.—Carefully copy the letter in Exercise IV. Be sure to arrange it as shown in the Exercise and to punctuate it correctly.

GROUPING, BY THEIR SYLLABLES, WORDS FROM THE LETTER IN EXERCISE IV

23. Directions.—For Exercise V, copy from the letter in Exercise IV, and write, in one column, six words of one syllable; in a second column write six words of two syllables; in a third column, six words of three syllables; and in a fourth column, six words of four or more syllables. Write the headings for the columns as shown for Exercise III.

ACCENT

24. Definition.—In a word of two or more syllables, one of the syllables is spoken with a stronger impulse of the voice than the others; as, AP-*ple*, AC-*cent*, *re*-PLY, *im*-POR-*tant*, *con*-TIN-*u*-*al*-*ly*. This stronger impulse of the voice, when applied to a syllable of a word, is called **accent.**

25. Primary and Secondary Accent.—Some words have more than one accented syllable; as, COM-*bi*-NA-*tion*, COUN-*ter*-ACT. One of the *accented* syllables in such words is usually spoken with more force than the other accented syllable. The stronger accent is called **primary accent** and the weaker, **secondary accent.**

EXERCISE IV

Baltimore, Md.,
July 12, 1920.

Mr. Robert W. Marsh,
608 Walnut St.,
Norfolk, Va.

Dear friend Robert:

Your inquiry of July fifth was received this evening. I am pleased with your confidence in me. Any information I may have that will assist you in shaping your future, I shall gladly give.

There are a few books on advertising that are recognized as standard authorities. Two or three good magazines that treat of this subject may be had at reasonable prices. I think it is wise for you to become a subscriber to one of them so that you may keep in touch with the most progressive and up-to-date methods. I especially recommend that you investigate the Course in Advertising provided by the International Correspondence Schools, of Scranton, Pa. I know several young men who have found it very satisfactory.

I shall endeavor to arrange for a meeting with you at my hotel room, when I am again in Norfolk, which I expect will be one month from to-day. There we may discuss these matters at greater length and with more satisfaction than the limits of a letter and my time will permit this evening.

Very sincerely yours,
Isaac B. Raymond.

26. How Accent Is Shown in the Dictionary.—The accented syllable of a word is shown in the dictionary by a little mark like this (′), which is placed just after and above the syllable. *Primary accent* is indicated by one heavy mark (′); *secondary accent,* by two light marks (″). Thus, *com-pute′; com″pu-ta′tion.*

27. A knowledge of the division of words into syllables and of the way to accent syllables is necessary to the correct pronunciation of words. You may know how to spell a word and you may give each vowel the right sound, yet your pronunciation will be incorrect if you do not properly separate the syllables and place the accent correctly. Thus, the word *advance* is sometimes wrongly pronounced *ad′vans* instead of *ad-vans′* and the word *municipal* (mu-nis′i-pal) is sometimes incorrectly pronounced mu″ni-cip′al.

To avoid similar errors, you should be certain about the syllables and the accent of the words you attempt to pronounce. You can easily learn their pronunciation by referring to your dictionary, where the division between the syllables is shown by the hyphen (-). However, where the accent mark occurs, no hyphen is used.

Examples.—

dis″em-bark′	fif′ti-eth	hair's′breadth″
dis-crim″i-na′tion	fin″an-cier′	pos″si-bil′i-ty
ex-ag″ger-a′tion	for-ma′tion	su″per-sti′tious

28. The accent mark very seldom appears in writing or printing, but the hyphen is always used when the writer has occasion to divide a word at the end of a line. In such a case the hyphen is used *between syllables* to show that part of the word is written on the next line. Never divide a word of one syllable at the end of a line; write the entire word on the next line. When you use a hyphen in this way, always place it at the end, never at the beginning, of a line. In your lessons you will find many illustrations of the hyphen used to divide words at the end of a line.

SYLLABLES AND ACCENTS IN SOME WORDS RELATING TO SCHOOLS

29. Directions.—With the help of the dictionary separate the words in Exercise VI into their syllables and mark the accented syllables. If two syllables of one word are accented, show by the proper marks which has primary and which has secondary accent. Read your completed work aloud several times, being careful to accent every word correctly and to give its proper pronunciation.

EXAMPLES.—

a-cad'e-my dis'trict med'i-cal pro-fes'sor

EXERCISE VI

academy	district	medical	professor
college	education	military	promotion
commercial	examine	museum	public
committee	graduate	normal	register
common	grammar	preparatory	scientific
department	industrial	primary	superintendent
diploma	janitor	principal	supervisor
director	master	private	trustee

A MECHANIC'S LETTER OF INQUIRY TO A COLLEGE

30. Directions.—Copy the letter in Exercise VII.

SYLLABLES AND PRIMARY AND SECONDARY ACCENTS IN WORDS FROM THE LETTER IN EXERCISE VII

31. Directions.—For Exercise VIII, write ten words of three syllables and ten words of four or more syllables that are used in the letter in Exercise VII. As you write these words, separate them into their syllables and mark the primary and secondary accents. Use the dictionary. Read your completed work aloud carefully, making certain you can pronounce each word correctly.

Keokuk, Iowa,
Aug. 4, 1920.

To The President,
The Harris School of Engineering,
Chicago, Ill.

Dear Sir:

I have read the advertisement of your college in the Chicago Tribune. Kindly send me a copy of your catalogue giving the cost of board, tuition, and books for your courses in Mechanical Drawing and Engineering; also please state how long it will take to complete these branches and what are your entrance requirements.

I graduated from the Keokuk High School five years ago. Since then I have completed my apprenticeship in a machine shop where I am still employed.

I should like to be qualified for the positions of foreman and general superintendent of this or a similar shop. I now realize that my education in this particular work is limited. Without special technical training my advancement will be slow and I cannot hope to enter the higher positions in competition with those about me. I must understand the principles and rules of mechanical engineering and be able to read and execute mechanical drawings with ease and accuracy.

Kindly let me know promptly what help you can give me in the direction I have indicated. My means and time are limited; and for this reason I ask that you give me your most favorable terms.

Yours very truly,
Wm. A. Fourjay.

COMMON ERRORS IN PRONUNCIATION

32. The following drills in pronunciation are exceedingly simple. Their purpose is to call attention to some of the words commonly mispronounced. The correct pronunciation of these words should be carefully noted, then each word should be pronounced several times until its correct form is given instinctively. Refer to these lists frequently—practice them repeatedly.

33. Many persons slur syllables. They say *praps* instead of *perhaps, potry* instead of *poetry, sevral* instead of *several.* The words in the following list are frequently slurred. Learn to pronounce them properly, giving each syllable due attention.

salary	history	omelet	usually
regular	diamond	reasonable	original
governor	general	singular	library
bravery	miserable	delivery	February
poetry	mountain	difference	captain

34. Pronounce each of the following carefully, taking pains to sound the final *g,* the letter *o,* the vowel *u.* Do not say *doin* instead of *doing, swaller* for *swallow,* nor *bloo* for *blue.*

leaving	potato	produce	morning
running	pillow	stupid	January
going	borrow	avenue	willing
hoping	window	educate	reduce
walking	fellow	picture	chocolate
speaking	follow	student	memory
reading	factory	occupy	singing
getting	oyster	stimulate	duty
evening	widow	Tuesday	innocent

35. Note that in each of the following words at least one consonant is silent and sometimes a vowel also. Pronounce each word carefully.

thumb	whistle	folks	naughty
often	thought	salmon	should
daughter	column	solemn	calf
castle	chestnut	height	answer
herb	island	mountain	debt

36. Combinations of letters like *th, wh, ngth, ch, ght* are difficult for some persons. Make certain you pronounce correctly each of the following:

white	chasm	chapter	children
mouth	eighth	whether	strength
wheel	architect	with	whisper
wheat	thousand	eleventh	which
sphere	Thursday	length	church

37. Directions.—In Exercise IX are fifteen words that, although in common use, are sometimes misspelled and frequently mispronounced. Study these words carefully and copy them as they are given. Then refer to your dictionary for the correct pronunciation of each word and copy the form given to show how it should be pronounced.

EXERCISE IX

whistle	reduce	engine
folks	going	perhaps
picture	throat	children
history	superintendent	hoping
window	Wednesday	stupid

COMMON ERRORS IN SPEECH

38. Besides making the mistakes in pronunciation already discussed, many persons, in the hurry of conversation, have a tendency to run words together. Thus, instead of saying *What did you do?* they say *Waja do?* Such habits of pronunciation have become so common that they pass almost unnoticed; but those who wish to be above criticism as far as their language is concerned, should try to avoid such errors.

The following expressions are some that are commonly run together. Say each one aloud and be sure to give each syllable and each word the correct sound. Guard against slurring.

Can't you see?
Don't you?
Get your hat.
Go on.
I'm going to do it.
I want to go.
He kept your book.
Tomorrow morning.
What did you say?
Next month.
Last Saturday.
You are working.
You're not going.
We're coming.
They're laughing.
Where are you going?
Where have you been?
When did he come?

SPELLING

39. It is just as important that you be a good speller as that you be a good penman. The world demands not only that you be able to write neatly, but also that you know how to spell correctly. For instance, you may write a letter of application in excellent handwriting and you may construct your sentences correctly, but, if your letter contains misspelled words, you may lose your chance of securing the position.

Most persons of the present generation are poor spellers—they seem to lack the ability to tell at once whether a word is correct or not and to decide what is the correct form of the word. There is no necessity, however, for any person to remain a poor speller. He can so train himself that he can distinguish at a glance whether the letters composing a word are the proper ones. He can learn to note words so minutely that instinctively the word will look wrong if it is not written correctly.

Spelling is chiefly a habit of the eye. The first thing to do then, is to fix in the mind a clear picture of the word. Learn how it looks in printing and in writing. Note it so carefully that when you think of the word, the way it looks occurs to you unconsciously, and you become able to write it without stopping to consider how it is spelled.

Are you desirous of becoming a good speller? Persistent effort on your part and a careful observance of the following rules should aid you greatly in acquiring proficiency in spelling:

1. Consult your dictionary whenever you are in doubt as to the spelling of any word.

2. Divide a doubtful word into its syllables after you have consulted your dictionary.

3. Learn to pronounce each word correctly. Say the word aloud until you are certain of its pronunciation and feel sure you will not mispronounce it the next time you use it.

4. Use a troublesome word until its correct spelling is familiar. Write the word a number of times, noting its form each time you write it. Constant repetition of the letters of the word in their correct order will tend to give you a permanent mental picture of that word.

5. Notice what words you commonly misspell and watch for them in your writing. Keep a careful list of the correct spelling of such words and refer to this list frequently. Study this list so carefully that after a while you instinctively write the correct forms of these words instead of the incorrect forms.

6. Learn a few words each day. By doing this, you gradually enlarge your store of words and thus your command of English.

40. A prominent educator who has made an extensive investigation of the problems of spelling has found that there are certain words commonly misspelled by most persons. He has made a list of one hundred of these words which he calls "One Hundred Demons of the English Language." This list is given here. Study it until you are certain that you spell correctly every word contained in the list.

ONE HUNDRED DEMONS

which	write	forty	tired	none
their	writing	hour	grammar	week
there	heard	trouble	minute	often
separate	does	among	any	whole
don't	once	busy	much	won't
meant	would	built	beginning	cough
business	can't	color	blue	piece
many	sure	making	though	raise
friend	loose	dear	coming	ache
some	lose	guess	early	read
been	Wednesday	says	instead	said
since	country	having	easy	hoarse

used	February	just	through	shoes
always	know	doctor	every	tonight
where	could	whether	they	wrote
women	seems	believe	half	enough
here	Tuesday	knew	break	sugar
hear	wear	laid	buy	straight
two	answer	tear	again	truly
too	ready	choose	very	done

41. Directions.—In the sentences in Exercise X occur misspelled forms of some of the words given in Art. **40.** Determine which of these words are misspelled. Then write the sentences, making certain that you spell each word correctly. Thus:

1. Which book did you buy?

EXERCISE X

1. Whitch book did you buy?
2. Do you beleive the story he told?
3. Mary has fourty chickens.
4. Father is coming home on Teusday.
5. Their busness is growing rapidly.
6. John sed that the price of suger will be higher.
7. Call the docter at wonce.
8. Can you seperate the good ones from the poor ones?
9. Helen is makeing over her coat insted of buying a new one.
10. Be redy to anser his questions.

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. Do not hold this work until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 3)

WORDS—(Continued)

1. Thus far we have shown that to gain a mastery of English, you must give time and thought to the pronunciation and the spelling of words. But you must carry your study much further than this. You must learn to distinguish between: (*a*) The various meanings of the same word; (*b*) words that are spelled alike but pronounced differently; (*c*) words that are pronounced alike, but spelled differently. In pursuing this study, make constant use of your dictionary, for, as previously explained, it will aid you materially in such matters.

(*a*) To understand thoroughly what you hear and read, you should be able to recognize the meaning that a word has in each particular case. To do this a knowledge of the definitions of words is important. Take, for example, the word *house*. In the sentence, He built a large apartment *house,* this word refers to a building or a place in which to dwell, but it has a much different use in the sentence, A large *house* greeted the speaker. Here it means an audience.

(*b*) Many persons make mistakes in their use of words by putting the accent on the wrong syllable, for the placing of the accent makes a difference in the meaning of some words that are spelled alike. No doubt you often hear persons say *per'fume* when they mean *per-fume'* and *ac'cent* when they mean *ac-cent'*. Errors of this nature can be prevented if strict attention be given to the definitions of such words and care be exercised in pronouncing the words.

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

(*c*) To express to others the thought you have in your mind, you must employ words that will accurately represent your ideas. If you should write to your grocer, "This morning I received the flower that I ordered a week ago," he might at first be puzzled to know just what you meant by *flower*, but would finally conclude that you referred to the *flour* delivered that morning, for he knows he does not sell *flowers* or plants. You cannot be too careful about such words in your writing, for a mistake of this kind may subject you to severe criticism.

THE VARIOUS MEANINGS OF WORDS

2. The dictionary frequently gives a number of definitions for one word. Each definition is generally explained by several other words, the words defining one use being grouped under one symbol. For instance, turn to page 723 of your dictionary and find the word *work*, which we use so often. It is given with three symbols: *n.*, *v.i.*, and *v.t.*, each symbol indicating a different use and group of meanings. The first group—the one after the symbol *n.*—contains ten definitions; the second, six; and the third, eight. Hence it is possible to use the word *work* with twenty-four different meanings. You should study each meaning and learn to be discriminating in your use of the word.

The following sentences represent only six of the more common uses of the word *work*, but these are sufficient to show the importance of understanding the various meanings of the words we frequently employ in speech and writing.

The *work* of building the bridge was difficult. (This illustrates the second meaning under *n.*—toil or labor.)

Mr. Brown showed Mary the *works* of his watch. (The moving parts of a machine.)

John now *works* for a different firm. (To toil or labor. See the second meaning under *v.i.*)

The canned fruit may *work* if you leave it in the sun. (To ferment.)

The girl will *work* a letter on the scarf. (To make, fashion, or shape. Note the first meaning under *v. t.*)

Can you *work* this machine? (To manage or operate.)

THE DICTIONARY

3. Use of the Dictionary.—Many persons think, when they come across an unfamiliar word, that they may guess at its meaning and "let it go at that." But this is a habit that should be discouraged, for it blunts the ability to listen and read understandingly, and to speak clearly and accurately. Many words are so commonly employed improperly, that the mind receives incorrect or inadequate impressions of their meanings. Accepted meanings may be determined from the dictionary. Keep it close at hand and consult it whenever you hear or see a word that you do not understand. From the various definitions given there, select the one that applies to the word as you heard it or saw it used. Learn to use definitions intelligently and you will have made great advance in your mastery of words.

4. How to Handle the Dictionary.—You have doubtless already noticed the notches, or thumb index, cut in the edges of the leaves of the dictionary and lettered to show where the words beginning with each letter of the alphabet are to be found. Suppose you wish to find the word *hornet.* Open the dictionary at the notch lettered *H.* Gently raise the upper corners of the leaves and roll them over, two or three at a time, watching the words printed at the tops of the pages, until you come to the word *horizontal.* Its first three letters *hor* are also the first letters of your word *hornet.* Open the dictionary here. Notice that the word *horizontal,* printed at the top of the first column on page 292, is the first word defined on that page and that the word *hospitality,* at the top of the second column, is the last word on that page. Hence all the words pronounced and defined on this page are between *horizontal* and *hospitality,* one of them being your word *hornet.* Thus, by looking at the first and the last word at the top of any page, you can quickly decide whether the word you are seeking is on that page. Observe these directions and continue this search for words until you can easily and quickly find any desired word. We all like to do those things which we

can do well. Early learn to handle the dictionary well and quickly, and you will soon enjoy using it.

NOTE.—Never moisten the fingers to turn or push over the leaves of a book. If you do, you will make finger marks and soon have it discreditably soiled. Always turn the leaves from the top or bottom edges.

5. Further Instructions for Using the Dictionary. In a previous lesson, we gave you some general instructions regarding the use of a dictionary, but as you proceed with your Course, you will need more explicit directions in order to find certain words. These are words that are forms of other words, of which the English language contains a large number. Thus, *made* and *making* are forms of *make; allowed* and *allowing* are forms of *allow; greater* and *greatest* are forms of *great.* In such cases, the form to employ depends upon the use that is to be made of it.

These words are not usually defined separately in your dictionary, and in looking up their meaning, it will be necessary for you to refer to what is given under the forms from which the others are derived. For example, after the word *made*, you will find *p.t. and p.p. of make.* This shows that *made* is a form of *make.* You can therefore conclude that these words are similar in meaning. Turning to *make*, you find that *made* and *making* occur within brackets after this word, thus showing that they are forms of *make* and similar in meaning. From the definition given for *make*, one can very easily be formed for *made;* thus, *created; fashioned, composed, produced or brought about, prepared for use*, etc. *Make* and *made* really refer to the same action, but they express this action as performed at different times and in different ways. We say, We *make* many friends if we are cheerful and We *made* many friends when we lived in that town. If we desire to use *making,* we may say, He is *making* many friends.

6. You may also come across words marked to show that they belong to several different classes, and the abbreviations used must be intelligible to you. For example, you will often see a word marked *v.t.*, which means *verb transitive*, and followed with several definitions. Just above them may occur the symbol *v. i.* (meaning *verb intransitive*), followed by other

definitions. Likewise you may find a word defined as a noun (*n.*), as an adjective (*adj.*), as an adverb (*adv.*), etc. All these forms will be explained in the proper place in your Course, and when you have learned just what they mean, finding the proper definition for a word will be an easy matter. Whenever you are preparing any work on words, you should note the marks and then endeavor to select definitions that define words as they are used in the sentences given you and to use words according to the meaning given for them in the various exercises or the definitions you copy. The following example will make this point clear:

Grain: Any very small hard seed or kernel.
Give the squirrel several grains of wheat.

This sentence contains the word *grain* used according to the definition preceding it and correctly illustrates this use of the word. On the other hand, the sentence, *The grain in the wood is very beautiful,* would not illustrate this meaning, for in this sentence, *grain* has the meaning: the arrangement of particles in a body.

SELECTING DEFINITIONS FOR CERTAIN WORDS AS INDICATED BY THEIR USE

7. Directions.—Copy the twelve sentences in Exercise I and note that, in each group of three sentences, the word printed in Italic has a different meaning. Find each italicized word in your dictionary and carefully compare the definitions with the use of the word in the sentence. When you have determined the exact meaning of each word according to its use, write after the sentence the meaning that shows the use of the word in that sentence. The following examples show how the first three sentences should be prepared:

EXAMPLES.—

1. He cut the *board* with a hatchet.
   A piece of timber sawed thin, and much broader and longer than it is thick.
2. We may bring the case before the *board* for the final decision.
   A number of persons elected to the management of some public or private office or trust.
3. The *board* at the hotel was excellent.
   Provision of meals, usually given for pay.

EXERCISE I

(*a*) 1. He cut the *board* with a hatchet.
2. We may bring the case before the *board* for the final decision.
3. The *board* at the hotel was excellent.

(*b*) 1. This man *boxed* the boy's ears.
2. The sentry *box* seemed very small.
3. He paid five dollars for a theater *box*.

(*c*) 1. The doctor's medicine *turned* my stomach.
2. The child quickly *turned* the corner.
3. Yesterday's storm *turned* the milk.

(*d*) 1. My brother won the *race* by three feet.
2. Let us *race* the automobiles.
3. The dying man said, "I have run my *race*."

A LETTER FROM A COLLEGE PRESIDENT IN REPLY TO A MECHANIC'S INQUIRY

8. Directions.—Write neatly the letter in Exercise II.

DEFINING WORDS ACCORDING TO THEIR USE IN THE LETTER FROM A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

9. Directions.—After each word in Exercise III, write the dictionary definition that corresponds to the meaning of that word as used in Exercise II.

EXAMPLES.—
1. Mechanical: Pertaining to the laws of matter and motion.
2. Letter: A written or printed communication.
3. Students: Persons engaged in study; persons devoted to books or learning.

EXERCISE III

1. board
2. clubs
3. cost
4. dormitory
5. instruments
6. lawns
7. light
8. managing
9. practical
10. reduce
11. study
12. tuition

EXERCISE II

President's Office

The Harris School of Engineering

Chicago, Ill., Aug. 8, 1920.

Mr. Wm. A. Tourjay,

Keokuk, Iowa.

Dear Sir:

We thank you for your letter of August 4th. We have a very thorough three years' course of study in Mechanical Engineering and Drawing. The cost of this course for tuition, textbooks, and board at the school dormitory is $525 for a year of forty weeks. This does not include stationery and instruments used in drawing. If you wish a single room, the cost will be one dollar per week extra. Some students reduce their expenses for board and lodging by arranging and managing eating clubs or by doing light work after class hours, such as cleaning automobiles, cutting lawns, attending to furnaces, etc.

Our instruction is very thorough and practical and our graduates rank high. We shall be pleased to enroll you among our students. We send you our catalog in today's mail.

Yours truly,

A. Wharton Harris.

President.

DEFINING CHOSEN WORDS

10. Directions.—Make a list of the ten italicized words in the selection from Burroughs given in Exercise IV, and after each word write the definition which the dictionary gives for it as it is used in this selection.

EXAMPLE.—

Sharp: Keen, penetrating.

EXERCISE IV

Little dramas and tragedies and comedies, little characteristic scenes, are always being enacted in the lives of birds, if our eyes are *sharp* enough to see them. Some *clever* observer saw this little comedy played among some English sparrows, and wrote an *account* of it in his newspaper; it is too good not to be true: A male bird brought to his box a large, fine goose feather, which is a great *find* for a sparrow and much coveted. After he had deposited his prize and chattered his gratulations over it, he went away in *quest* of his mate. His next-door neighbor, a female bird, seeing her chance, quickly slipped in and seized the feather; and here the wit of the bird came out, for instead of carrying it into her own box she flew with it to a near tree and hid it in a fork of the branches, then went home, and, when her neighbor returned with his mate, was innocently employed about her own affairs. The proud male, finding his feather gone, came out of his box in a high state of *excitement,* and, with *wrath* in his manner and *accusation* on his tongue, rushed into the cote of the female. Not finding his goods and *chattels* there as he had expected, he stormed around awhile, abusing everybody in general and his neighbor in particular, then went away as if to repair the loss. As soon as he was out of sight, the *shrewd* thief went and brought the feather home and lined her own domicile with it.

Burroughs

WORDS SPELLED ALIKE BUT PRONOUNCED DIFFERENTLY

11. The accenting of words is always an important matter, but it is of much consequence in words that are spelled alike. Since the spelling of such words is the same, the meaning depends entirely upon the position of the accent. For example, *in'sult* means an affront or indignity; gross abuse in word or action; *in-sult'* means to treat with gross contempt or abuse, by word or act. We say, *The in'sult was more than he could stand* and *I would not in-sult' him by such remarks.* It is not customary to indicate the accented syllable in written or printed matter, so this difference will not be shown in what you read. But in reading aloud or in conversation, it is important that you place the accent on the proper syllable of every word. To this end you should observe which syllables are accented in the dictionary and then you should so place the accent that the word as you use it, is pronounced properly and expresses the meaning intended.

A STUDY IN ACCENT AS AFFECTED BY THE USE OF WORDS

12. Directions.—In the sentences given in Exercise V, the pronunciation and the meaning of the words printed in Italic depend on the position of the accent mark. By changing the accented syllable you change both pronunciation and meaning.

Copy these sentences carefully, underline the words printed in Italic, and mark their accented syllables as shown. Read the sentences aloud, being careful to give the accented syllables the stronger force of the voice. Then find these italicized words in the dictionary and study the changes in the definitions of the same words with a different accent.

EXERCISE V

1. John did not correctly *ac-cent'* the word *sub'ject.*
2. They will *sub-ject'* him to a severe examination for his *ac'cent* shows him to be a foreigner.
3. The druggist sold a bottle of *per'fume* for fifty cents.
4. Those fragrant flowers will *per-fume'* the room.
5. The faithful clerk has received an *in'crease* in salary.
6. You can *in-crease'* your efficiency by hard work and study.
7. The employe was commended for his good *con'duct.*
8. The guide will *con-duct'* the party through the building.
9. Thus far the *proj'ect* has not been successful.
10. The financier will *pro-ject'* another plan for raising the money.
11. There are sixty *con'victs* in the prison.
12. The newspaper contained a report of their efforts to *con-vict'* him.

---

13. Directions.—Read aloud the words and their definitions, given in Exercise VI, and note the change in meaning and in pronunciation caused by changing the accent. Keep studying the words and their definitions until you have become thoroughly familiar with them. Then copy the ten sentences and in place of each number enclosed in marks of parenthesis write the word that should be used there. Select the word from the preceding group that has the same number. Be sure to show the accent mark in the word you supply.

EXAMPLE.—

Every business man should keep a *rec'ord* of his sales. Note that the word *rec'ord* is given in Group 3 and that it is numbered the same as the number enclosed in the sentence.

EXERCISE VI

1. Prog'ress: *A movement or going forward.*
   Pro-gress': *To move forward; advance.*

2. Ob'ject: *Anything that can be seen or touched.*
   Ob-ject': *To urge as a reason against; to disapprove.*

3. Rec'ord: *A written roll or register made for the purpose of keeping facts or events.*
   Re-cord': *To write or enter a true account of.*

4. Prod'uce: *That which is yielded; yield, especially farm products.*
   Pro-duce': *To yield or bring forth.*

5. Per'mit: *A written warrant or leave to do something.*
   Per-mit': *To consent to; to tolerate.*

6. Des'ert: *A wilderness; waste; a solitude.*
   De-sert': *To forsake; abandon.*

1. Every business man should keep a (3) of his sales.
2. If you wish to (1) in business you must work faithfully.
3. The manager will not (5) strangers to enter the machine shop, but he does not (2) to their visiting the office.
4. They secured a (5) to (3) the facts of the trial.
5. The brave prospector was lost in the (6).
6. The farmer could not sell his (4) because he had no (5) from the city.
7. The grocer displayed the (2) in his store window.
8. The court will not (5) him to (6) his family.
9. England does not (4) as much grain as the United States.
10. The clerk made satisfactory (1) with his work.

A MECHANIC'S LETTER OF INQUIRY TO THE I.C.S.

14. Directions.—Write neatly the letter in Exercise VII.

EXERCISE VII

Keokuk, Iowa,
Aug. 3, 1920.

International Correspondence Schools,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

In reply to your advertisement in The World To-Day, kindly send me full information about your courses of study in Engineering and Mechanical Drawing.

I am a graduate of the high school of Keokuk and have completed an apprenticeship of four years in the large shops of the Keokuk Machine and Tool Company.

I am ambitious to qualify for the positions of foreman and general superintendent of this or a similar shop. I now realize that my chances of reaching such positions are very limited without technical education in the branches named above.

Kindly send me, by return mail, your descriptive catalogue and state the cost for text-books, and the time required to complete these courses. I shall also be pleased to know what success your graduates in these branches have attained.

I await a prompt reply.

Yours respectfully,
Wm A. Tourjay.

WORDS SIMILAR IN SOUND BUT DIFFERENT IN SPELLING AND MEANING

15. There are many groups of two or more words, like *air, e'er, ere,* and *heir,* that are pronounced alike but that are spelled differently and have different meanings. Because of their similarity, words of this kind are often confused and used incorrectly. An understanding of such terms is necessary if one wishes to avoid errors in their use. Thoughtful study of their meanings and spelling will show the distinction between them. The exercises that follow give practice in using such words.

16. Directions.—Study the words in Exercise VIII until you understand their spelling and their meanings. Then study each sentence and determine which of the words enclosed in marks of parenthesis should be used. After you have done this, write the sentences correctly.

EXAMPLE.—The salesman did not *know* the price of *flour* by the barrel.

EXERCISE VIII

1. Cord: *A twisted string.*
   Chord: *The string of a musical instrument; musical tones in harmony.*

2. Made: *Finished; prepared for use.*
   Maid: *A female servant.*

3. Flour: *The fine meal of ground wheat or other grain.*
   Flower: *A blossom.*

4. Pair: *Two things of a kind, similar in form and used together.*
   Pare: *To cut or shove off the outside or ends of.*
   Pear: *A juicy, fleshy, eatable fruit.*

5. Know: *To understand clearly; to be aware of.*
   No: *A word of denial; nay; not so; not any.*

6. Coarse: *Large in texture or size; not refined; of poor quality.*
   Course: *A race; a path or track; progress; career.*

7. Rain: *Water falling in drops from the clouds.*
   Reign: *Supreme rule; prevailing control or influence.*
   Rein: *A leather strap fastened to each side of a horse or other animal as a means of guiding and controlling it.*

8. Meat: *Animal flesh used as food.*
   Meet: *To come face to face.*
   Mete: *To give out by measure; allot.*

1. The salesman did not (know, no) the price of (flour, flower) by the barrel.
2. The shopper bought one (pair, pare, pear) of gloves and four yards of (coarse, course) muslin.
3. The clerk carefully tied the package with (cord, chord).
4. The agent quickly (made, maid) the sale.
5. The mistress asked the (made, maid) to (pair, pare, pear) the apples quickly.
6. The butcher carried the (meat, meet, mete) into the store out of the (rain, reign, rein).
7. "(Know, No)," cried the guard, "the (coarse, course) is not clear."
8. The horse broke the (rain, reign, rein) and ran down the street.
9. I should like to (meat, meet, mete) the farmer and ask him to let me pick those (pairs, pares, pears).
10. He will (meat, meet, mete) you after the (rain, reign, rein) ceases.

17. Directions.—In the sentences of Exercise IX the words enclosed in marks of parenthesis are similar in sound but different in meaning and spelling. Refer to your dictionary for the meaning of each word you do not thoroughly understand. Then write the sentences, *using the correct word* in each instance.

EXAMPLE.—

1. We were not allowed to go.

EXERCISE IX

1. We were not (aloud, allowed) to go.
2. Will you not (by, buy) this material?
3. The wind (blue, blew) and quickly filled the (sail, sale).
4. I do not (need, knead) your help.
5. If you will (write, rite, right) the letter now I shall (mail, male) it.
6. The shipment (mite, might) have been delayed.
7. Mr. Thomas (least, leased) the house (to, too, two) me for $5,000.
8. The train was (dew, due) at (for, four) o'clock.
9. There will (be, bee) a (sail, sale) of books at Brown & Price's store.
10. (There, their) has been a drop in the price of (steal, steel).

ADDITIONAL DRILL

18. The words in the following lists are in common use. Study them carefully and refer to your dictionary for the meanings of any word you do not understand. Be sure to learn the spelling of each word according to its definition.

WORDS SPELLED ALIKE BUT DIFFERENT IN PRONUNCIATION AND MEANING

con'tract con-tract'	in'va-lid in-val'id	min'ute mi-nute'	ab'sent ab-sent'
pres'ent pre-sent'	ref'use re-fuse'	trans'port trans-port'	tor'ment tor-ment'
ex'port ex-port'	re'tail re-tail'	trans'fer trans-fer'	fre'quent fre-quent'
con'flict con-flict'	ex'tract ex-tract'	o'ver-charge o-ver-charge'	reb'el re-bel'

WORDS SIMILAR IN SOUND BUT DIFFERENT IN SPELLING AND MEANING

council counsel	here hear	pain pane	greater grater
cereal serial	week weak	peace piece	lesson lessen
birth berth	throne thrown	wait weight	waste waist
capital capitol	kernel colonel	break brake	principal principle

COMMON ERRORS

19. Besides knowing how to spell words, pronounce them, and determine their distinctions in meaning and use, we must be able to use words correctly in sentences, if we wish to command the respect of our friends and associates. This is true in both speech and writing. Those who hear what we say, judge our ability not only by our pronunciation of words, but also by the way in which we arrange them in sentences. Those who read what we write, pay just as much attention to the construction of our sentences as to the way in which we spell.

Errors occur in language of so many persons that one cannot give this matter too much attention. A large number of

these mistakes may be avoided through a little care, and some of these are the ones of which we shall speak here. We hope that you will be on the alert for errors of this character and that you will do your best to avoid such errors in your speech and writing. Probably the best way of showing you many of these common errors and of helping you to avoid them, is to illustrate their use in sentences. To the right of the following incorrect forms, you will find the correct forms given. Be sure to note in every case, just how the errors can be corrected; for knowing the incorrect forms will be harmful to you unless you learn how to remedy them.

Incorrect	Correct
'Tain't my book.	It is not my book.
Hain't I seen you before?	Have I not seen you before? *or* Haven't I seen you before?
You done it.	You did it, *or* You have done it.
There are them that done it.	There are those who did it, *or* There are the ones who did it.
I have saw that.	I have seen that, *or* I saw that.
I seen him.	I saw him, *or* I have seen him.
He done the work and has went home.	He did the work and went home, *or* He has done the work and has gone home.
This lesson is wrote good.	This lesson is well written.
I have wrote my lesson.	I have written my lesson, *or* I wrote my lesson.
Has the books come?	Have the books come? *or* Has the book come?
They haven't went yet.	They haven't gone yet.
There was many men present.	There were many men present.
They was good.	They were good.
There isn't no book here.	There is no book here.
I can't write nothing.	I can write nothing, *or* I can't write anything.
I hain't got no more books.	I have no more books.
I don't know nothing about it.	I know nothing about it, *or* I do not know anything about it.
We couldn't hardly find it.	We could hardly find it.
I won't do this for nobody.	I won't do this for anybody.

Incorrect	Correct
Mary she helps lots.	Mary helps very much.
The woman she worked hard.	The woman worked hard.
I think lots of my friend.	I think a great deal of my friend.
I bought this off of the farmer.	I bought this from the farmer.
Take the dish offen' the table.	Take the dish off the table.
This book is yourn.	This book is yours.
That hat is hern.	That hat is hers.
The coat is hisn.	The coat is his.
Take them there tools home.	Take those tools home.
These here papers are finished.	These papers are finished.
Where do you work at?	Where do you work?
He would of come if we had of asked him.	He would have come if we had asked him.
We read where prices are increasing.	We read that prices are increasing.
They blamed it on to us.	They blamed us for it.
It wasn't him; it was me.	It wasn't he; it was I.
John gave this to you and I.	John gave this to you and me.
I thought it was her.	I thought it was she.
Him and John can go.	He and John can go.
This secret is between you and I.	This secret is between you and me.

20. Directions.—After you have studied Art. **19,** and have noted how the errors in the given sentences can be corrected, write correctly the sentences in Exercise X.

Example.—1. Mr. Brown, James has gone to the store.

EXERCISE X

1. Mr. Brown, James has went to the store.
2. I can't do nothing with this here pen.
3. There was four women hurt in the accident.
4. You done the work good.
5. The clerk he missed the train.
6. Where does your sister live at now?
7. I seen that it was him.
8. I can buy a hat like yourn off of Mr. Jones.
9. Take that there book of hisn.
10. He hain't got no more money.
11. I would of went with you.
12. I have wrote twelve sentences.

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. Do not hold this work until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 4)

WORDS—(Continued)

TERMS OFTEN CONFUSED IN USE

1. In addition to the classes of words previously discussed, there is another class that requires attention. These are words that are nearly alike in spelling and pronunciation, but are not exactly the same in either respect. Because of their similarity, they are frequently confused. It is really a common occurrence to hear some one say *ammonia* when he means *pneumonia; information* when he means *inflammation,* or *edible* when he should say *audible.* These amusing and inexcusable blunders occur frequently in the speech of the uneducated and illiterate, and occasionally creep into the speech of persons of some education.

2. Another common error is in the use of such words as *except* and *accept,* and *emigrate* and *immigrate.* A comparison of the words *except* and *accept,* and *emigrate* and *immigrate* will show clearly why these words cannot be used interchangeably and what is the correct use of each. As shown in your dictionary, *except* marked *v.t.* (verb transitive) means *to omit or leave out; exclude;* and when marked *v.i.* (verb intransitive) means *to object. Accept* marked *v.t.* (verb transitive) means *to take or receive with approval; to agree or to acquiesce in; to recognize as true; to agree to pay. To omit or leave out* is practically the opposite of *to take or receive,* and yet the words for which these meanings stand are confused by many persons. *Emigrate* and *immigrate* also give trouble, probably

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

because they refer to the same act and the same person. But there is a difference between these words, and the word to be used depends upon the side from which the action is viewed. *To emigrate* means *to leave one's country to settle in another,* while *to immigrate* means *to come into a new place of residence, especially to come into a country to settle.* Note the correct use of these four words in the following sentences:

The employer *excepted* John's name from the list of applicants.
I shall be glad to *accept* your invitation.
They *emigrated* from Italy before the war.
Many foreigners *immigrate* to America every year.

Most of us feel ashamed when we make blunders in our use of words, and are glad to have our attention called to them so we may avoid them. No one likes to be laughed at, and such errors are a source of ridicule. The thing to do then, is to learn to use words in their right places—to understand them so thoroughly that we always use them in the places where they fit.

3. List of Words Likely to Be Confused.—Each of the following groups contains words that are frequently confused or misused. Refer to your dictionary for the meanings of these words and study these meanings until you clearly understand the uses that each word may have. Then try to use them correctly in sentences. When you employ any of these words be careful to use them in the right place and according to their accepted meanings.

century	advice	irruption	persecute
sentry	advise	eruption	prosecute
descent	affect	pillar	formerly
decent	effect	pillow	formally
accept	eligible	clothes	treatise
except	illegible	close	treaties
salary	precede	healthful	quiet
celery	proceed	healthy	quite
loose	costume	weather	disease
lose	custom	whether	decease
series	accede	purpose	perspective
serious	exceed	propose	prospective

edition	pastor	radish	resent
addition	pasture	reddish	recent
eminent	emigrant	respectfully	allude
imminent	immigrant	respectively	elude
popular	prophecy	plaintiff	news
poplar	prophesy	plaintive	noose

DISTINGUISHING WORDS SIMILAR IN SOUND

4. Directions.—In each sentence of Exercise I, words, similar in sound but different in meaning and spelling, are enclosed in marks of parenthesis. Carefully compare their definitions as given in the dictionary. Then copy the sentences, using the correct word in each instance.

EXAMPLE.—

1. He was unwilling to accept the situation at the salary mentioned.

EXERCISE I

1. He was unwilling to (except, accept) the situation at the (celery, salary) mentioned.
2. One thousand (emigrants, immigrants) from France were crowded in the hold of the vessel.
3. The doctor will (advice, advise) us concerning the proper treatment of the (disease, decease).
4. His words so (affected, effected) the audience as to bring tears to their eyes.
5. He was in (imminent, eminent) danger of being killed.
6. The committee readily (acceded, exceeded) to his request.
7. His dress and manner were always (descent, decent)
8. Robert E. Peary will ever be known as one of the most (eminent, imminent) explorers and as the discoverer of the North Pole.
9. The (pastor, pasture) was grateful for his friend's (advice, advise).
10. A sudden (irruption, eruption) of the volcano destroyed the great city.

LEARNING TO USE WORDS SIMILAR IN SOUND

5. Directions.—After each word in Exercise II write one definition given in the dictionary and a sentence of your own in which this word is used correctly according to the definition you have selected for it. Read your work aloud.

EXAMPLES.—

1. Air: The fluid which we breathe; the atmosphere.
   Because the ventilation was imperfect, the air in the room became very impure.
2. Heir: One who succeeds another in the possession of property, title, office, mental gifts, etc.
   He is heir, by his uncle's will, to that large farm.

EXERCISE II

bail	wring	cell	berry	fair	heel
bale	ring	sell	bury	fare	heal

6. Directions.—Study the pronunciation, spelling, and meaning of the words that occur in marks of parenthesis in Exercise III. Then decide which of these words is the proper one to use in each sentence and write the sentences correctly.

EXAMPLE.—1. The pillars at the north entrance of the building were damaged.

EXERCISE III

1. The (pillows, pillars) at the north entrance of the building were damaged.
2. When you have taken a record of the attendance you may (proceed, precede) with the regular service.
3. During a (resent, recent) thunderstorm, lightning struck the tower of the city hall.
4. The children had difficulty in keeping (quite, quiet) during the sermon.
5. This (radish, reddish) and that bunch of (salary, celery) will surely take (prizes, prices) at the fair.
6. His writing was so (illegible, eligible) that we could not read it.
7. The applicant should try to convince his (perspective, prospective) employer that he has a (purpose, propose) in life.
8. The children are (healthful, healthy) because they live in a (healthy, healthful) climate.
9. The (century, sentry) walked up and down under the (popular, poplar) trees.
10. He ended his letter, "(Respectively, respectfully) yours."

7. Correctness in spelling and in the use of words are among the things necessary in a letter if the writer would have the letter a worthy representative of himself or of the firm for whom he is writing. Errors at once distract the attention of the reader and create an unfavorable impression.

EXERCISE IV

International Correspondence Schools

SCRANTON, PA. August 6, 1920.

Mr. Wm. A. Tourjay,
Keokuk, Iowa.

Dear Sir:

We take pleasure in answering your letter of August 3d about our courses of study in Mechanical Engineering and Drawing.

These courses have been prepared by men of practical as well as theoretical training in these branches. Their aim has been to prepare a series of textbooks that would contain only such information as must be of practical value to the student and yet all that may be needed for efficiency in the higher positions in their respective vocations. In the compilation of these textbooks we have had in mind the student whose time is limited and who will have to master these lessons without the aid of a personal instructor. The mechanical principles to be taught are presented in language that is clear and concise and in a form that can be readily retained. The working exercises are preeminently practical.

The time required to complete these courses depends very much on your previous education, your perseverance in pursuing your studies, and the amount of time you devote to them each day. One who can spare only two hours each evening after work will probably require two and a half or three years to complete the courses. Your high-school education and practical experience in the machine shop will be of great advantage to you and should enable you to complete the course in much less time than the average student.

In reply to your request for information about the success of our students, we inclose a few of the many voluntary testimonials and letters of appreciation from our grateful graduates. The originals of hundreds of similar letters may be read at our offices.

The price for a course includes all books necessary in its study, information blanks, envelopes, postage on all mail sent to you, complete instruction, and a Diploma upon graduation.

Your inquiry has been forwarded to our Representative, who will call on you soon and give you any additional information desired. We hope to enroll you as a student.

We thank you for your letter and we assure you if you enroll with us it shall be our aim to make your course a profitable investment for you.

Yours very truly,

International Correspondence Schools.

The I.C.S. reply to the mechanic, given in Exercise IV, is a well-constructed letter, free from errors in either spelling or the use of words. It does, however, contain words that are misspelled, mispronounced, or confused by many persons. Your attention is called to these, so you may study them, and learn to avoid errors in their use.

Words Frequently Misspelled	Words Frequently Mispronounced	Words Frequently Confused
pleasure	Iowa	practical (practicable)
practical	drawing	their (there)
perseverance	training	series (serious)
advantage	such	lessons (lessens)
many	your	great (grate)
voluntary	evening	course (coarse)
grateful	probably	price (prize)
hundreds	average	mail (male)
similar	offices	sent (scent, cent)
postage	inquiry	correspondence (correspondents)

8. Directions.—Write neatly the letter in Exercise IV. Make certain that you do not have any errors in the words to which we have called your attention.

INDICATING THE SYLLABLES AND THE PRONUNCIATION OF WORDS

9. Directions.—Learn to spell the twenty-four words given in Exercise V. Then group these words into four columns according to the number of their syllables. Show the syllables and the accents. Enclose each silent vowel in marks of parenthesis ( ), and indicate the sounds of the sounded vowels by the marks given in the dictionary. Do not enclose consonants. Read your work aloud several times, being careful to pronounce each word correctly.

Examples.—

One Syllable	Two Syllables	Three Syllables	Four or More Syllables
Chāng(e)	ăc′cĕnt	dĭf′fĭ-cŭlt	ĭn′tĕr-ĕs-tĕd

EXERCISE V

accent	feeling	letter	ready
change	health	meanings	receive
course	implies	pleased	return
difficult	insists	pleasure	situated
divide	interested	promise	spare
ease	know	rare	studied

SYNONYMS

10. The English language is rich in **synonyms**—words having almost the same meanings, but differing slightly in the application of these meanings. Because of this difference in meaning, it is seldom possible to substitute all the synonyms for a given word in any particular case, and still preserve the intended thought. For example, some of the synonyms for the word *beautiful* are *fine, handsome, comely, exquisite,* and *lovely.* Of these, *handsome* has a meaning more nearly like *beautiful* than the others, and it can be substituted for *beautiful* in the sentence, *The woman was beautiful,* without greatly changing the meaning. However, it is not possible to substitute *lovely, fine, comely,* or *exquisite* in this sentence without changing the thought somewhat; for the woman might be *lovely, fine, comely,* or *exquisite* without being *beautiful.*

The words *busy, industrious,* and *active* are synonyms, but when you consider them somewhat, you will see that they do not mean exactly the same thing. If we say *The man is busy* we mean that the man is, at this moment, doing some task that requires his full attention. Substituting *industrious* for *busy,* we have, *The man is industrious,* and now we mean that the man diligently applies himself to some work or business. Hence, it is possible for a man to be *busy,* without being *industrious.* Again we may say *The man is active,* and by this we imply quickness of action. A man may therefore be *active* but neither *busy* nor *industrious.*

11. Importance of Synonyms.—These examples show very clearly that while no two words in any group of synonyms

express exactly the same thought, they may be used to express different shades of this thought—by means of them you can say exactly what you want to say. For this reason, they are important and should receive special attention. If you understand the uses of synonyms and learn to distinguish their various shades of meanings, you will be better able to express your ideas.

The use of synonyms will also enable you to acquire variety of expression, for if you know the synonyms of words, you will not have to repeat the same word time and time again. Beware of favorite words. If you find that you frequently employ some such word as *nice, great, fine, good, elegant, awful, horrid, splendid,* learn its synonyms and then substitute these synonyms for the word you overwork.

Fernald in his book, "Expressive English," gives the following:

"We were *greatly* surprised to see so *great* a crowd of people assembled, evidently for some *great* occasion. On inquiry we learned that a *great* man was to address the people on a subject of *great* interest. The *great* size of the field, which slopes like an amphitheater, enabled the *great* crowd to hear every word with *great* ease, and all listened with *great* attention to the *great* thoughts presented."

He then substitutes synonyms for *great* and gives the paragraph in this revised form:

"We were *much* surprised to see so *large* a number of people assembled, evidently for some *important* occasion. On inquiry we learned that an *eminent* man was to address the people on a subject of *especial* interest. The *ample* size of the field, which slopes like an amphitheater, enabled the *vast* crowd to hear every word with *perfect* ease, and all listened with *utmost* attention to the *noble* thoughts presented."

This shows clearly the unnecessary repetition of words and the need of employing synonyms. Will you not learn to use them? Ask yourself the questions, *Am I using any one word too frequently? Have I repeated unnecessarily any word in this sentence or paragraph?* If you find that any word appears too often, learn its synonyms and then use them.

12. Where to Find Synonyms.—After many of the definitions in your dictionary occur the letters *Syn.* This abbreviation stands for the word *synonym,* and indicates that the words following it are terms that are *synonymous* with the word under which they occur. Read these synonyms and see in what respect they are similar, and wherein they are different. You will note more difference with some than with others. Refer to the definitions of those synonyms that give you difficulty and fix in your mind the exact thought expressed by each.

13. List of Synonyms.—Each of the following groups contains synonyms. Look up these words in your dictionary, so you will clearly understand how the words in each group differ from each other and in what respects they are similar.

abandon	account	conquer	diminish
desert	reckoning	surmount	reduce
forsake	bill	vanquish	contract
confess	speech	abide	earn
acknowledge	talk	dwell	acquire
concede	address	reside	win
admit	dry	act	even
allow	parched	work	level
permit	arid	effect	plain
yield	defend	force	comply
afford	justify	energy	conform
bear	protect	vigor	submit
clear	immense	beneficent	color
bright	enormous	generous	dye
lucid	huge	liberal	stain
active	mend	perfect	anger
alert	correct	complete	indignation
quick	rectify	finish	temper

14. Directions.—Each of the sentences in Exercise VI contains two synonyms enclosed in marks of parenthesis. Determine which synonym best brings out the meaning of the sentence. Then write the sentences, omitting the synonym that does not bring out the meaning intended.

EXAMPLE.—

1. He was always brave in the face of danger.

EXERCISE VI

1. He was always (*brave, courageous*) in the face of danger.
2. The (*battle, fight*) between the two armies raged for five hours.
3. The child humbly (*begged, asked*) the judge to release her father.
4. I (*pursued, followed*) the thief to the corner but the policemen (*pursued, followed*) until they caught him.
5. You should break yourself of the (*custom, habit*) of smoking.
6. Edison has (*discovered, invented*) many electrical appliances.
7. He thought often of the roses in the yard of his old (*home, house*).
8. Mr. Brown has several miserable (*homes, houses*) that he rents.
9. That girl's manner of speaking made me (*angry, mad*).
10. When the foreman questioned the laborer, he would not (*acknowledge, confess*) that he had made a mistake.

15. Directions.—Copy neatly the letter in Exercise VII.

EXERCISE VII

Keokuk, Iowa,
Sept. 12, 19—

International Correspondence Schools,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Your reply of August 6 was duly received and read with interest. I have written to a few of your students. Their replies are sufficiently encouraging and commend your instruction so highly that I herewith enroll for a course in Mechanical Engineering. I will pay for it on the installment plan described in your circular.

I find by inquiry that your charges are much more moderate than those of the technical schools and colleges where these branches are taught. Moreover, while pursuing my studies with you, I can continue my employment. This will be of much advantage to me.

Yours respectfully,
Wm. A. Sourjay.

DETERMINING SYNONYMS FOR WORDS

16. Directions.—Exercise VIII contains a list of words that are used correctly in the letters given in Exercise IV and Exercise VII. Read these letters, noting the meaning conveyed by each word occurring in the list. Then copy these words, and after each word write one or more synonyms, or words, that have a meaning similar to the given word. Use the dictionary in determining these synonyms. In some instances you may use the definitions, if these definitions consist of only one word. Note that in most instances, the synonym could not well be substituted for the word used in the letter and that the writer of the letter has selected the term most appropriate.

After you have determined your synonyms pick out *ten* of them and construct a sentence for each of the ten words you select.

EXAMPLE.—

Aim: Object; design; purpose.
Reply: Answer; response.
His main *object* seemed to be the acquirement of wealth.
The manager sent me a complete, definite *answer* to my question.

EXERCISE VIII

WORDS FROM EXERCISE IV	WORDS FROM EXERCISE VII
aim	reply
clear	commend
concise	highly
perseverance	described
devote	inquiry
grateful	charges
contain	moderate
	employment

TERMS OFTEN WRONGLY USED

17. In order to help you recognize some of the errors that are frequently made in the use of words, we shall give you here a list of terms that are commonly confused or misused. Learn from the explanations and illustrations the particular use of each term and be sure you employ them appropriately whenever need arises for their use.

Abbreviate, Abridge, Contract.—A word or a phrase may be *abbreviated* or *contracted;* a sentence, a paragraph, a sermon, a document of any kind, a book, may be *abridged.* An *abbreviation* is a shortened form of a word; a *contraction* of a word is made by omitting some letters and using an apostrophe (’). Thus *Co.* is the abbreviation for *company; acc't* is the contraction for *account.*

You may *abbreviate* the word January in the heading of your letter.
The editor will *abridge* the dictionary.
We frequently *contract* words in speaking and writing.

Advance, Advancement.—We speak of the *advance* of prices or wages, of the *advance* of an enemy, of a person's *advance* in learning. *Advancement* is usually employed in the sense of promotion or furtherance.

His *advancement* brought with it a welcome *advance* in salary.
The *advance* of the army was checked at that point.

Allude, Mention.—The literal meaning of *allude* is to treat lightly, merely to hint at; to refer to something in an indirect way. *Mention* is a stronger term and means actual naming.

The speaker *alluded* to the negligence of certain officials, though he *mentioned* no names.

Audience, Spectators.—An *audience* is a group of listeners; *spectators* are those who look.

The *audience* was spellbound at his remarks.
The *spectators* grew restless before the pictures were shown.

Believe, Think, Guess.—*Believe* means to be persuaded of the truth; *think* means to exercise the mind in order to determine the truth; *guess* means to judge at random. A person does not always *think* before he *guesses,* nor does he always

believe that he has *guessed* correctly. *Guess* should never be used for *believe* or *think*.

I *think* it will rain tonight.
I *believe* that he told the truth.
The children will never *guess* the riddle.

Cause, Reason.—The *cause* of any event, act, or fact is the power or agency that makes it be; the *reason* for it is the explanation made for it by the human mind. The following sentences exemplify correct uses of the two words:

Bacteria are the *cause* of many diseases.
The *cause* of his return was an urgent letter from his father.
The teacher's *reason* for punishing the boy was that he had disobeyed her.

Character, Reputation.—*Character* refers to what a person really is; *reputation* refers to what others think of him.

He has a *reputation* for being dishonest.
His *character* was not admired by his friends.

Dock, Pier.—The word *dock* means a basin for vessels, not a wharf or a *pier*. One may fall off a *pier* or a wharf into a *dock*, but not off a *dock*.

The vessel is now in the *dock* at League Island Navy Yard.
Night was falling and the *pier* was deserted.

Don't, Doesn't.—One of the most common errors both in speech and in writing is the use of *don't* for *doesn't*. With *I, we, you,* or *they,* use *don't;* with *he, she, it,* or the name of a person or thing, use *doesn't*. The sentence, "He *don't* like to study," is incorrect for *doesn't* is the correct form to use with *he*. If you will remember that *don't* is a contraction of *do not,* and that *doesn't* is a contraction of *does not,* you will be able to decide when to use these words. You would not say *He do not like to study,* and therefore you should not use the contraction *don't* in such a sentence.

I *don't* like his attitude toward our business.
We *don't* believe that he is wrong.
Mary *doesn't* know her lesson today.
It *doesn't* make any difference which way you go.
He *doesn't* live in this neighborhood.

Invention, Discovery.—The words *invention* and *discovery* should be carefully distinguished. *Invention* implies the

making of something; *discovery* is the bringing to light of something previously hidden. We say: The *invention* of printing; the *discovery* of the laws of gravitation, of the planet Neptune; the *invention* of the mariner's compass, of the steam engine.

The *invention* of the submarine caused many changes in ocean liners.
The *discovery* of the South Pole occurred in 1911.
The *invention* of gunpowder is attributed to the Chinese.

It's, Its.—*It's,* a contraction of *it is,* must always have the apostrophe (') and should not be confused with the possessive word *its,* which should not have the apostrophe.

It's unfortunate that you can't go.
The store has lost *its* prestige.
It's time for the train.
Please put the book in *its* place.

Learn, Teach.—*Learn* and *teach* are frequently confounded. *Learn* means to gain knowledge; *teach* means to impart knowledge.

They will *teach* him the lesson and he will *learn* it.
He has *learned* the work so thoroughly that he is able to *teach* it to others.

Never say, He can *learn* me, He *learned* the dog new tricks, etc.

Like, Love.—We *like* apples, but *love* our brothers and sisters. *Love* should be used to express a feeling of affection or regard and not to indicate appetite nor preference.

I *like* the delicate shades of green.
The man *loves* his little son.

Likely, Liable.—*Likely* may be used to refer to any event regarded as probable; the best usage confines *liable* to events of an unfavorable kind.

He is *likely* to come at any time.
You are *liable* to arrest for speeding your automobile.
His action makes him *liable* to severe criticism.

Party, Person.—The use of *party* in the sense of person, individual, is inexcusably vulgar. We may speak of a political *party,* an evening *party,* a fishing *party,* a *party* to a sale or a

lawsuit, but we should not say, *The party with whom you saw me was my uncle.*

He is a quiet, inoffensive old *person.*
The policeman locked the noisy *person* in a cell.
The secrets of the *party* were revealed before the election.
The *party* left the hotel and began the journey up the mountain.

Respectively, Respectfully.—These two words are frequently used for each other. *Respectively* means as relating to each; in particular. *Respectfully* means in a respectful manner. Never write *Respectively yours* in the conclusion of a letter. *Respectfully* is the correct word here.

We should treat our associates *respectfully.*
The first, second, and third ballots were cast for Jones, Smith, and Brown, *respectively.*

Suspect, Expect.—The word *suspect* usually conveys the idea of unpleasant possibility. *Expect* refers to the looking forward to something which may be pleasant or unpleasant.

The police *suspect* that the cashier is guilty of forgery.
They *expect* to make the arrest tomorrow.

USING WORDS CORRECTLY

18. Directions.—For each of the words in Exercise IX, write a sentence in which you use that word correctly. Do not use any of the sentences in Art. **17,** but have each sentence a correct expression of your own thought.

EXERCISE IX

1. abbreviate
2. advance
3. audience
4. believe
5. don't
6. expect
7. invention
8. learn
9. likely
10. love
11. party
12. reason
13. reputation
14. respectfully
15. suspect

USE OF LONG TERMS AND EXPRESSIONS

19. There are times when long words are necessary and appropriate. Many words that apply to politics, such as *amendment, legislature, inauguration, convention,* are of considerable length. Medical terms are generally long, as *pneumonia, inflammation, digestive, gastroenteric.* Then a large number of the new words that come into the language, as *automobile, telegraphic, aeroplane,* are longer than some of the older ones. No criticism can be made regarding the use of these words in their proper place, nor of long words whose meaning can not be given except by using a number of shorter words. For example, it is generally better to use the word *innumerable* than its equivalent expression *more than can be counted,* for it is shorter and entirely clear to most persons.

While long words certainly have their place in the expression of thought, newspaper correspondents and writers of second-rate novels and short stories frequently use long words and unfamiliar expressions to give an air of loftiness to that which is commonplace, or to cause to appear humorous that which is not in any way amusing. We sometimes read, *The poor unfortunate was launched into eternity,* or *The lecture was beyond our diminutive comprehension.* The writer of such sentences could clearly express his thought by saying, *The criminal was hanged* and *The lecture was too difficult for us to understand.* Such expressions as *raven locks* for *black hair, two rows of pearls* for *white teeth, fair Luna* for *moon* were once much used in poetry, but they have now lost their value and effectiveness, because they have become so common. Those who are thoughtless or careless in the use of words and those who do not appreciate the beauties of correct English, are always ready to adopt such forms of speech. We caution you, however, against the practice of using such expressions, for not only will they render your meaning obscure but they will subject you to the ridicule of your friends or readers. If you wish to express yourself clearly, use simple familiar words—words easily understood by most persons.

20. In the following lists, the advantage of simple terms may easily be seen by comparing the forms marked *Incorrect* with those designated as *Correct:*

Incorrect	Correct
There was an appalling catastrophe.	There was a terrible disaster.
There was a disastrous conflagration.	There was a great fire.
He entered into rest *or* He departed from this earthly habitation.	He died.
They entered into a matrimonial alliance.	They were married.
He discharged his financial obligations.	He paid his debts.
She dwells under the parental roof.	She lives at home.
They will sever their domestic relations.	They will secure a divorce.
He purchased it from an itinerant merchant.	He bought it from a pedler.
An individual was precipitated.	A man fell.
She was financially embarrassed.	She was without money.
He was clad in conventional black.	He wore a black suit.
Her maternal ancestor volunteered assistance.	Her mother offered to help.
The orchestra discoursed sweet strains of melody.	The orchestra played sweetly.
You should cultivate repose.	You should be quiet.
The fair innocent was injured.	The child was hurt.
The luminous orb of day had disappeared.	The sun had set.
Fair Luna appeared above the horizon.	The moon rose.
Retire to your nocturnal slumber *or* Seek your downy couch.	Go to bed.

21. The following abstract from a letter written by Abraham Lincoln is a striking contrast to the expressions just given. Note how concise and forceful it is in expression, and how frank and unmistakable in meaning, yet no extremely difficult words are used in it. The writer knew that it would be read by people all over this great nation and he expressed his thoughts so that no one would have any difficulty in under-

standing them. Too much stress cannot be laid on the value of reading the masters of English, and of avoiding writers who express themselves in long, complicated expressions that savor of cheapness and affectation.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON,
August 22, 1862.

HON. HORACE GREELEY,

Dear Sir:—I have just read yours of the nineteenth, addressed to myself through the New York Tribune. * * * * * * * * * *

As to the policy I "seem to be pursuing," as you say, I have not meant to leave any one in doubt.

I would save the Union. I would save it in the shortest way under the Constitution. The sooner the national authority can be restored, the nearer the Union will be "the Union as it was." If there be those who would not save the Union unless they could at the same time save slavery, I do not agree with them. If there be those who would not save the Union unless they could, at the same time, destroy slavery, I do not agree with them. My paramount object in this struggle is to save the Union, and is not either to save or to destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slave, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it; and if I could save it by freeing some and leaving others alone, I would also do that. What I do about slavery and the colored race, I do because I believe it helps to save the Union; and what I forbear, I forbear because I do not believe it would help to save the Union. I shall do less whenever I shall believe what I am doing hurts the cause, and I shall do more whenever I shall believe doing more will help the cause. I shall try to correct errors, and I shall adopt new views so fast as they appear to be true views.

I have here stated my purpose according to my views of official duty; and I intend no modification of my oft-expressed personal wish that all men everywhere could be free.

Yours,

A. LINCOLN.

SIMPLIFYING SENTENCES

22. Directions.—Rewrite, in clear, simple language, the sentences given in Exercise X. Preserve the thought that is expressed in each one, but relieve each sentence of its objectionable expressions.

EXAMPLE.—

1. If he can only work from morning till night, he is happy.

EXERCISE X

1. If he can only work from morn till dewy eve, he thinks he is in his native element.
2. He has either been murdered, or has suddenly and unaccountably lost his mental equilibrium and wandered away.
3. He walked three miles through the slushy snow, to the great detriment of his nether garments.
4. All nature was in repose as we set sail on our gallant ship.
5. The water pipes refused to yield their accustomed donation to the household activities.
6. The little boat danced merrily over the sparkling waves on its way to the deep, blue sea.

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK UNTIL ANOTHER LESSON IS READY.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 5)

THE SENTENCE AND ITS ELEMENTS

THE SENTENCE

1. If you heard a person use such expressions as *letters are, frightened horse, are interesting,* and *good books,* you would naturally think he had something more to say, for these groups of words do not express complete thoughts. They are merely combinations that represent ideas. However, if he should say, *The letters are written, The frightened horse ran away, Words are interesting, You should read good books,* his meaning would be clear, for now he does not use incomplete expressions, but makes known his thoughts in a clear and definite manner. In their completed forms, such groups of words are called sentences.

2. Definition.—A **sentence** is the simplest group into which words are arranged to express a complete thought.

3. In the following left-hand column the expressions are complete sentences; in the right-hand column, they are not sentences. Read these and note how those in the first column differ from those in the second.

We found a few wild flowers.	a large shipment of fruit
The stenographer wrote ten letters.	a trip to the city
The bill was received yesterday.	was going twelve miles an hour
Coal is used for fuel.	in his letter of application
John was welcomed by the boys.	going quickly down the street

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

In the illustrations of sentences, the first word begins with a capital letter. This is one of the ways by which you can distinguish the sentences in the matter you read, for, in correct composition, every sentence begins with a capital letter. Observe this rule in your writing, as failure to begin a sentence with a capital letter will be an error on your part and will prevent your reader from determining readily your exact meaning.

WRITING SENTENCES ABOUT SCHOOL STUDIES

4. Directions.—Copy neatly the groups of words in Exercise I. Begin each group that states a complete thought with a *capital letter* and end it with a *period*. Begin with a *small letter* each group that does not state a complete thought and end it without a period.

NOTE.—If you are not sure of the meaning and the pronunciation of words, always consult the dictionary. A pronouncing list of names and places begins on page 755 of the dictionary.

EXERCISE I

WORDS USED IN SCHOOL

1. the public school opens next Monday
2. normal school last Monday
3. the crater of the volcano
4. the sun had passed the zenith
5. he could not find the Susquehanna River on the map
6. the vessel sailed safely up the bay
7. it stranded in the sound
8. the heat in the torrid zone
9. we found the plateau an arid desert
10. one small but beautiful oasis
11. an isthmus three miles wide joined the peninsula to the continent
12. samuel did not know the meaning of delta
13. the teacher asked him the capital of Cuba
14. the climate of California

THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF SENTENCES

5. In Art. **1,** you learned that thoughts are expressed in the form of sentences. Now we shall consider the parts of which sentences are composed and the various ideas that sentences express.

Every sentence consists of two parts. This always holds true, no matter how short the sentence is, and it is therefore one of the most important things to be remembered about a sentence. Think of the following sentences:

Birds | sing.	Children | like to play.
Dogs | bark.	The boy | sells papers.
Spring | is here.	The house | was sold.

Each of these sentences naturally divides itself into two parts—that about which something is told, and that which tells something. The part that precedes the straight line denotes the person or thing that is spoken of and is called the SUBJECT. The part that follows the straight line tells something about this person or thing and is known as the PREDICATE. Fix these names firmly in your mind, for they will be used often throughout the following lessons.

6. The following definitions refer to the two essential parts of a sentence:

Definition.—The **subject** of a sentence names the person or thing of which something is told.

Definition.—The **predicate** of a sentence tells something about the person or thing named by the subject.

7. In the following sentences the part to the left of the vertical line is the subject and the part to the right is the predicate.

The lion | roared.
The clerk | made many mistakes.
We | were late for work.
The farmer | has planted his potatoes.
The machinist | broke the lathe.
The ground | was covered with snow.
He | applied for the position.
The postman | gave me several letters.
The soldier | was wounded in the battle.

EXERCISE II

8. Supplying Subjects and Predicates.—Supply subjects which may be used with the following predicates:

EXAMPLE.—1. Cats mew.

1. ——— mew.
2. ——— flashes.
3. ——— shines brightly.
4. ——— teaches me.
5. ——— learn quickly.
6. ——— went away.
7. ——— sing merrily.
8. ——— told us a story.
9. ——— finished his work.
10. ——— won the prize.

Supply predicates which may be used with the following subjects:

EXAMPLE.—1. Children play.

1. Children ———.
2. Farmers ———.
3. Rain ———.
4. The work ———.
5. My book ———.
6. The wind ———.
7. The branches of the tree ———.
8. A severe storm ———.
9. An automobile ———.
10. The army ———.

SELECTING SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES

9. Directions.—Copy the sentences occurring in Exercise III and divide each one into its subject and its predicate by means of a vertical line.

EXAMPLE.—1. The frightened horse | ran away.

EXERCISE III

1. The frightened horse ran away.
2. His work was not accepted.
3. The business was prosperous.
4. William completed the copy yesterday.

5. The manager promoted John.
6. The miners' strike has ended.
7. We sailed around the island.
8. My subscription has expired.
9. Our head bookkeeper has resigned.
10. The newspaper lay on the floor.

COMPLETE SUBJECT AND COMPLETE PREDICATE

10. In many of the foregoing examples, both the subject and the predicate consist of several words. The entire group of words that make up the part about which something is said, is known as the *complete subject.* The remainder of the sentence is called the *complete predicate.* Take for example the sentence, *The old horse jogged wearily down the road.* Here the complete subject is *the old horse* and the complete predicate is *jogged wearily down the road.*

The complete subjects and predicates in the following sentences are separated by a vertical line:

Our new automobile | has just arrived.
A little black kitten | played on the porch.
A man of honor | is respected.
Many crops | were destroyed in the flood.
His application | has not reached us.

SIMPLE SUBJECT AND SIMPLE PREDICATE

11. In each of the parts just explained, there is one word that is of more importance than any other. This word in the subject names the particular person or thing about which something is said and is called the *simple subject.* In the predicate, it expresses action, being, or state with regard to the subject and could not be omitted without destroying the sense of the sentence. Here it is known as the *simple predicate.* In the sentence, *The old horse jogged wearily down the road,* the word *horse* is the simple subject, for it is the leading word in the complete subject and names the particular thing about which the statement is made. *Jogged* in the complete predicate, names the action that the horse performed, and is the simple predicate.

In the following sentences, the complete subjects and the complete predicates are separated by a vertical line, the simple subjects are italicized, and the simple predicates are written in small capitals.

The street *car* | RAN into the wagon.
The *smoke* | CURLED over the hill.
His *services* | WERE REQUIRED no longer.
I | GAVE his plan a fair trial.
The *letters* | WERE MAILED last night.

Throughout these lessons, the terms *subject* and *predicate* will be used to refer to the *simple subject* and the *simple predicate* of sentences. When the entire subject or predicate is meant, the terms *complete subject* and *complete predicate* will be employed to designate them.

12. Agreement of Subject and Predicate.—In constructing sentences, you should be careful about the agreement of the simple subject and the simple predicate. If the simple subject means only one person or thing, it often requires a different form of the simple predicate than it requires if it refers to more than one. Note the following sentences:

One *engine* IS USED if the road is level.
Two *engines* ARE USED on grades.

In the first sentence, only one object is denoted by the simple subject *engine*. The simple predicate required for this subject is the form *is used*. When the subject is changed so that it refers to *two engines*, the predicate must also be changed, and the correct form is *are used*. In the following sentences, observe how the predicate is changed to agree with the subject:

The *church* IS LOCATED on the corner.
In this town all *churches* ARE LOCATED on corners.
The *automobile* WAS DAMAGED in the accident.
Both *automobiles* WERE DAMAGED when they collided.
The *boy* HAS BEEN SCOLDED for his misbehavior.
The *boys* HAVE BEEN SCOLDED by their father.
A *letter* HAS just COME for you.
Two *letters* HAVE just COME for father.
Our *bridge* WAS WASHED away by the storm.
Several *bridges* WERE WASHED away during the high water.

13. Directions.—Study carefully the sentences in Exercise IV and decide which of the forms enclosed in marks of parenthesis is the correct one to use. Then write each sentence, using that form.

EXAMPLE.—1. Two canoes were tied to the landing.

EXERCISE IV

1. Two canoes (was, were) tied to the landing.
2. Many persons (believe, believes) in signs.
3. That mistake (is, are) often made by new employes.
4. Two birds (was, were) singing in the old apple tree.
5. Chrysanthemums (were, was) used for decoration.
6. One hour (was, were) required for the trip by automobile.
7. Many changes (have, has) been made in the labor laws.
8. A carefully trained man (is, are) needed in our department.
9. Many soldiers (have, has) enlisted for the war.
10. His stories of camp life (are, is) very interesting.

KINDS OF SENTENCES ACCORDING TO USE

14. All sentences belong to one of three classes. The following are examples of these classes:

1. John has learned his lesson.
2. John, learn your lesson.
3. Has John learned his lesson?

The first sentence states a fact and is called a *declarative sentence;* the second one expresses a command and is called an *imperative sentence;* the third one asks a question and is called an *interrogative sentence.* The name given to each class indicates the *use* of the sentences that belong to that class.

THE DECLARATIVE SENTENCE

15. A large part of the sentences that we utter, state some fact. We are familiar with such sentences as the following, for they occur in our every-day conversation:

The grocer has not delivered the apples.
The accident occurred yesterday afternoon.

The street car strike was settled last week.
Work will be resumed on Monday morning.

Each of these sentences declares or states something as a fact.

16. Definition.—A sentence that declares or states something as a fact is called a **declarative** sentence.

17. Rule.—*Every declarative sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period.* In your writing, do not fail to observe these points. Note how the following sentences begin and end:

The trail over the mountain is dangerous.
The price of the magazine is one dollar a year.
I felt sorry for the trouble I caused.
The doctor called to see his patient.
His wages have been increased recently.

EXERCISE V

18. Directions.—For Exercise V, write ten declarative sentences, observing the previous rules for beginning and ending such sentences. Let at least five sentences contain the name of some person; as, Richard, John Smith, R. N. Anderson, etc. Such names should always begin with capital letters.

THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

19. While statements form a large part of the sentences we express, there are occasions that call forth the other classes. Note the following sentences:

Please help me obtain some food.
Clean the fires every night.
Stop at Weaver's grocery store and buy some sugar.
Tell George to wash the gauge glass.
Shovel the snow from the sidewalk.
Give the horse some hay and oats.

Each of these sentences expresses a command or an entreaty.

20. Definition.—A sentence that expresses a command or an earnest entreaty is called an **imperative** sentence.

21. In each of the examples given, there is no subject expressed. This omission of the subject is characteristic of the imperative sentence, for the person using a sentence of this kind is speaking to some one and he, therefore, has in mind, for a subject, the name of that person. However, since he is talking directly to the other, it is not necessary for him to mention this name. If the subject were expressed, it would be the word that stands for the name of the person. Since we generally use the word *you* instead of the name of the person with whom we are conversing, it is customary to regard the word *you* as the understood subject of an imperative sentence. This holds true even though the name of the person to whom we are speaking may be mentioned; as in, *John, go to work immediately; Mary, wash the dinner dishes.* The subject of these two sentences is still *you,* understood.

22. Rule.—*Every imperative sentence should begin with a capital letter and end with a period.*

23. Sometimes it is somewhat difficult to determine the class of certain sentences that seem to be commands but that are really statements. Two things, however, will help to distinguish between such sentences—whether the subject is expressed or understood, and the meaning that the sentence expresses. Note carefully the difference between the following declarative and imperative sentences:

You do not seek for trouble. (Declarative)
Do not seek for trouble. (Imperative)
You must write your name legibly. (Declarative)
Write your name legibly. (Imperative)
You shall not spend your entire salary. (Declarative)
Do not spend your entire salary. (Imperative)

EXERCISE VI

24. Directions.—For Exercise VI, write ten imperative sentences. Let some of your sentences contain the name of a town or a city; as, *Boston, Chicago.* Always begin such a name with a capital letter.

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

25. Very often it is impossible to express one's thoughts either in the form of a statement or as a command. This is the case when one desires information about some person or concerning some thing. Then the sentence employed will be neither declarative nor imperative, but will be in the form of a question. The following are sentences of this kind:

Who saw the frightened horse?
Why was the bridge not guarded?
Did John put the horse into the barn?
Did you tell George to wash the automobile?
When do you expect to finish the work?
Did you have trouble in crossing the river?

26. Definition.—A sentence that asks a question is called an **interrogative** sentence.

27. Interrogative sentences have several distinguishing features that every one should remember. The subject of such a sentence always denotes the person or thing concerning which the question is asked and usually does not occur as the first word. In fact, it is generally preceded by a part of the predicate. For example, in the sentence, *Are you going to New York this fall?*, the question is asked of *you;* hence the subject is *you*. This subject separates the predicate *are going*, and is preceded by *are*, the first part of the predicate.

Why did the boy stone the poor dog? (Subject—boy. Predicate—did stone.)

Have the men finished their work? (Subject—men. Predicate—have finished.)

Did Harry shovel the snow from the sidewalk? (Subject—Harry. Predicate—did shovel.)

May I take the automobile today? (Subject—I. Predicate—may take.)

Where have the boys gone? (Subject—boys. Predicate—have gone.)

28. Rule.—*Every interrogative sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a question mark* (*?*). This mark is also called an *interrogation point*. It is the chief thing that distinguishes written or printed sentences of this kind. Spoken questions are indicated by a rising inflection of the voice. Read

aloud the following sentences and note the difference in the tone of voice used for the statements and that used for the questions:

His report was complete and well expressed. (Declarative)
Was his report complete and well expressed? (Interrogative)

The day was warm and balmy. (Declarative)
Was the day warm and balmy? (Interrogative)

The mail box has been moved to the corner of the street. (Declarative)
Has the mail box been moved to the corner of the street? (Interrogative)

29. The subject and the predicate of any interrogative sentence can easily be determined by changing the question to a statement. For example, to find the subject and the predicate of the interrogative sentence, *Have you had your supper?*, we change it to the declarative form, *You have had your supper.* In this form, the subject *you* and the predicate *have had* are easily distinguished.

EXERCISE VII

30. Directions.—1. Write five interrogative sentences asking questions about persons you know. Begin the names of these persons with capital letters.

2. Write a question about each of the objects represented by the following names: Windows, factory, ship, potatoes, breakfast. Observe the use of capital letters and question marks.

DETERMINING THE CLASS TO WHICH SENTENCES BELONG

31. Directions.—Study the sentences given in Exercise VIII and decide to what class each one belongs. Then write *dec.* after each declarative sentence, *imp.* after each imperative sentence, and *interrog.* after each interrogative sentence. In each sentence, underscore the subject with one line and the predicate with two lines.

EXAMPLES.—

1. The secretary closed the safe carefully. *dec.*
2. Did the office boy leave the door open? *interrog.*

EXERCISE VIII

1. The secretary closed the safe carefully.
2. Did the office boy leave the door open?
3. Please put those books in the bookcase.
4. The machinist broke the bolt this morning.
5. Remove the screw from the lock.
6. The engineer carefully oiled his engine.
7. When will the train reach the station?
8. Helen, do not stand on the platform.
9. I shall not leave the office until five o'clock.
10. Is the mail delivered three times each day?

PRACTICE IN SENTENCE WRITING

32. Directions.—Write correctly the sentences in Exercise IX, observing all previous instructions for the use of periods and question marks and for capital letters at the beginning of sentences and names. Show the class of each sentence by writing *dec.* after the declarative sentences, *interrog.* after the interrogative sentences, and *imp.* after the imperative sentences.

EXAMPLE.—1. Bring me a quire of paper. *imp.*

EXERCISE IX

1. bring me a quire of paper
2. does john use a fountain pen
3. the point of anna's pencil broke just then
4. the ink on miss jones' desk was frozen wednesday night
5. has philip, the office boy, returned with the mail
6. was the president of the firm away on business
7. the janitor forgot to turn out the lights
8. did jessie stamp the envelope addressed to memphis, tennessee
9. leonard sharpened the pencil with his penknife
10. use the eraser to remove your error in the word pennsylvania, mary

---

DICTIONARY EXERCISE

33. Directions.—Divide the fifteen words in Exercise X into their syllables, mark the accent, give the form for the correct pronunciation, and write the definition. Use the dictionary. When the word for which you are looking has two

or more definitions, select that one which refers to an object used in an office. After you have completed this Exercise, read your work on it aloud one or more times.

EXAMPLE.—Mu'ci-lage (mū'sĭ-lāj): a gummy fluid used to stick things together.

EXERCISE X

NAMES OF THINGS USED IN THE OFFICE

blotter	ledger	penknife
bulletin	letter-heads	receipts
check	manuscript	tablet
dictaphone	paper	telephone
eraser	pencil	typewriter

MISCELLANEOUS COMMON ERRORS

Don't Say	*Do Say*
She performs on the piano.	She plays the piano.
I have to have some money.	I must have some money.
The girls are nowhere near ready.	The girls are not nearly ready.
Don't go without you take your umbrella.	Don't go unless you take your umbrella.
Not as I know.	Not that I know.
I am afraid I can't go.	I fear I can't go.
We ain't seen him.	We haven't seen him.
She ain't going.	She isn't going.
Where is he at?	Where is he?
Where has she gone to?	Where has she gone?
They got married.	They were married.
I just love candy.	I like candy very much.
She is light complected.	She is light complexioned.
Any one of these pictures are suitable.	Any one of these pictures is suitable.
I can't hardly see.	I can hardly see.
I couldn't hardly see.	I could hardly see.
We have every confidence in her.	We have entire confidence in her.
Did you direct the letter?	Did you address the letter?
We are going to go tomorrow.	We are going tomorrow.
It looks as if it was ready.	It looks as if it were ready.
They always spoke contemptibly of her.	They always spoke contemptuously of her.
All alone by myself.	Alone *or* by myself.

Don't Say	*Do Say*
I can't find it any place.	I can't find it anywhere.
John is still mad at me.	John is still angry (*or* vexed) with me.
It don't fit me.	It doesn't fit me.
My hat don't look right.	My hat doesn't look right.
He has a bad wound.	He has a severe wound.
I have had a raise in salary.	I have had an increase in salary.
He could of gone yesterday.	He could have gone yesterday.
She looks kind of tired.	She looks rather tired.
Henry is littler than James.	Henry is smaller than James.
She borrowed it off of me.	She borrowed it from me.
He is well posted concerning the business.	He is well informed concerning the business.
That is a good fitting suit.	That is a well fitting suit.
This engine is not working good.	This engine is not working well.
I don't feel good today. (To denote illness)	I don't feel well today.
She saw he and I.	She saw him and me.
Thinks I to myself.	I thought to myself *or merely* I thought.
He is a new beginner.	He is a beginner.
I guess I will stay two weeks.	I think I shall stay two weeks.
He hasn't got a cent.	He hasn't a cent.
Taste of this fruit.	Taste this fruit.
Are you through?	Have you finished?
This hat cost over fifteen dollars.	This hat cost more than fifteen dollars.
That poor widow woman looks very cold and ill.	That poor widow looks very cold and ill.
Mother is very fleshy.	Mother is very stout. John is extremely large. Mark is corpulent.
What kind of a workman is he?	What kind of workman is he?
I work mornings.	I work in the morning.
I study afternoons.	I study in the afternoon.
You hadn't ought to do that.	You ought not to do that.
Neither of the girls are going.	Neither of the girls is going.
Every one of the boys are going.	Every one of the boys is going.
Grapefruit is healthy.	Grapefruit is healthful.
We propose to be there on time.	We intend to be there on time, *or* It is our purpose to be there on time.
Where's the boys?	Where are the boys?
I am so happy.	I am very happy.

Don't Say	*Do Say*
We didn't do it but once.	We did it but once, *or* We did it only once.
We was there. Was you?	We were there. Were you?
He is a Belgium.	He is a Belgian.
I ain't seen him.	I have not seen him.
I wasn't home when you called.	I was not at home when you called.
It ain't my fault.	It isn't my fault.
A good fitting shoe, hat, dress.	A well fitting shoe, hat, dress.

SPELLING WORDS

The words given in the following lists are common in the speech of nearly every person; hence their correct forms should be known by every one. Study these words, fixing their forms so firmly in your mind that you unconsciously write them correctly whenever you have occasion to use them. Consult your dictionary for any word of whose pronunciation or meaning you feel doubtful. Learn each day the correct spelling of a few words, paying special attention to those you use most frequently, or with which you have some difficulty.

able	alone	another	article
absent	along	appear	ashamed
aching	aloud	appetite	ashes
acre	already	apple	asleep
afternoon	angel	apply	attack
agent	angry	April	August
agree	animal	apron	aunt
alley	ankle	around	automobile
baby	before	blind	breath
banana	began	board	breathe
barber	beggar	boots	bridge
barrel	besides	borrow	broom
baseball	better	bottle	brother
basket	between	bought	build
beautiful	bigger	boxes	bundle
because	biscuit	breakfast	buried
cabbage	ceiling	Christmas	collar
called	cereals	cider	company
candy	changed	cigar	cooky
capture	changing	cigarette	cookies

careful	cheat	city	cried
careless	chewed	clean	cross
carpet	chicken	climbed	crowd
carries	chilly	clothing	cruel
cattle	chimney	cloudy	curtain
caught	chopped	coffee	customer
daisy	death	disappoint	drank
damage	deceive	disgrace	drawers
damp	dentist	dishes	dream
dance	describe	disobey	dressed
dangerous	deserve	dollar	dried
dark	digging	double	dropped
darling	dinner	dough	dry goods
daytime	dipper	dozen	dusty
daily	dirty	drained	dying

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 6)

SENTENCES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FORM

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

1. You have learned that because sentences are used in different ways, or have different uses, they are divided into declarative sentences, interrogative sentences, and imperative sentences; or sentences making statements, asking questions, and expressing commands. Sentences are also classified in another way—according to their form. Consider carefully the following:

The grocer receipted the bill for me.
I sold the merchant a carload of flour.
Did you ask the foreman about your work?
Was the price too high?
Be sure to save a part of your salary.
Use this hammer.

There are two important facts to note concerning each one of these sentences: (1) It contains but one subject and but one predicate, and (2) it expresses a single thought. The first two sentences make statements, the next two ask questions, and the last two express commands. The subject is expressed in the first four of these sentences, but as the last two are imperative, the subject is understood. Sentences of this kind, which contain one subject and one predicate and which express a single statement, question, or command, are SIMPLE. Other examples are:

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

STATEMENTS

We are sending you our latest catalog.
The advertisement appeared in yesterday's paper.
I sold them a vacuum cleaner.
I saw the blacksmith at work.
He was whistling a merry tune.

QUESTIONS

Will you deliver this package at once?
Can you fill my order soon?
Why does the city man pay so much for fresh vegetables?
How do you get along without a telephone?
Will your car take you safely through sand and mud?

COMMANDS

Do not become offended so easily.
Make a game of your work.
Try to write more evenly.
Send your application within three days.
Always do your work carefully and accurately.

2. Definition.—A sentence that expresses a single statement, question, or command is a **simple sentence.**

EXERCISE 1

3. Directions.—Write: (*a*) five simple sentences that are statements; (*b*) three simple interrogative sentences; (*c*) three simple imperative sentences. (*d*) Copy the following simple sentences and tell why each one is simple. Classify each one as declarative, interrogative, or imperative:

EXAMPLE.—

1. His anvil is made of steel. This is a simple sentence because it expresses a single statement. It is also a declarative sentence.

1. His anvil is made of steel.
2. He now uses an electric fan.
3. Why does the blacksmith need such a hot fire?
4. Tell the blacksmith about the horse-shoes.
5. Where did the carpenter find such poor materials?
6. We saw many beautiful pictures in the library.
7. See the carpenter on the roof of that building.
8. A violent storm swept over the Southern coast.
9. Watch the storm from this window.
10. Did you hear about the destruction of the great ships?

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

JOINING SIMPLE SENTENCES

4. Simple sentences may be so joined together that they express two or more thoughts in one sentence.

EXAMPLES OF ONE-THOUGHT SENTENCES

1. The carpenter made his hatchet very sharp.
2. He nearly cut off his finger with it.
3. The clerk was not accustomed to that work.
4. She made many mistakes.
5. She displeased her employer.
6. The machinist broke the bit.
7. He crushed his finger.
8. He did not injure the lathe.

These eight sentences are all simple, because each expresses only one complete thought. By joining certain of them together and occasionally changing a word, we may show a closer relation between the sentences and make the reading of them more pleasant.

EXAMPLES OF TWO- AND THREE-THOUGHT SENTENCES

1. The carpenter made his hatchet very sharp and nearly cut off his finger with it.
2. The clerk was not accustomed to that work; hence, she made many mistakes and displeased her employer.
3. The machinist broke the bit and crushed his finger, but did not injure the lathe.

The first of these three sentences expresses two thoughts. Each thought is complete in itself and independent of the other part of the sentence. The second and the third sentence each contains three independent parts and expresses three complete thoughts.

5. Definition.—A sentence that expresses two or more independent thoughts is a **compound sentence.**

We thus see that a compound sentence is made up of two or more simple sentences joined together.

To avoid unpleasant repetition in a compound sentence, a word is sometimes omitted and understood; as, the word *he* before *nearly* in the first example, and *she* before *displeased* in the second, and *he* before *crushed* and *did* in the third.

6. Each of the compound sentences shown in Art. **4** is made up of two or more simple statements. It must not be thought, however, that commands or questions cannot be combined to form compound sentences. A compound sentence may contain two or more simple commands, two or more simple questions, two or more simple statements, or a combination of these. Note the following:

Prepare the vegetables for dinner and then set the table. (Compound sentence consisting of two simple commands.)

Can you finish the work or shall I help you? (Compound sentence consisting of two simple questions.)

Business was dull and money was scarce, so that the men were glad to return to work. (Compound sentence consisting of three simple statements.)

Trust men and they will be true to you; treat them greatly and they will show themselves great. (Compound sentence consisting of two simple commands and two simple statements.)

Additional examples:

The young woman steered her car carefully through the crowd and then speeded down the road.

Has peace been declared or is the war still raging?

The battle was brief, but it was decisive.

The old man turned the key, withdrew it from the lock, opened the door, and stepped into the room.

Come at once, or do not come at all.

Trust in the Lord, but keep your powder dry.

Have you heard from him and is he coming?

The wind blew, the rains descended, and the floods came.

The employers were just; therefore, they granted the demands of the employees.

CHANGING COMPOUND SENTENCES TO SIMPLE SENTENCES

7. Directions.—Separate the six compound sentences in Exercise II into sixteen simple sentences. Be careful in your spelling and refer to the dictionary for the meaning and pronunciation of any words concerning which you are in doubt.

EXERCISE II

THINGS SEEN IN A MACHINE SHOP

1. The skilful machinist filed the band saw; then he quickly sawed out twenty-three porch brackets.
2. I lent my chisel to Theodore and he let me use his jack plane.
3. The apprentice knew how to saw the iron bolt; but he broke three blades in his hack saw, and then asked the foreman for new blades.
4. The electric motor was burned out by the apprentice and the machine shop was shut down for several days; hence, the contractor could not get his ironwork and he laid off his bricklayers.
5. The engineer never neglected to oil all the bearings; hence, the journals did not get hot, and the machinery kept running smoothly.
6. The manager paid sixty-three dollars last week for a full set of taps and dies and the careless workman broke two taps during his first use of them.

CONNECTING WORDS FOR COMPOUND SENTENCES

8. You have doubtless noticed that in the foregoing examples of compound sentences, some connecting word, such as *and, hence, but, or, so,* or *therefore,* is used, in most instances, to join the parts of the sentence. In the following list occur the connectives that are frequently used in sentences of this kind.

accordingly	hence	or
also	however	otherwise
and	likewise	so
as well as	moreover	still
besides	nevertheless	then
but	nor	therefore
consequently	notwithstanding	thus
else	now	wherefore
furthermore	on the contrary	yet

COMBINING SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO COMPOUND SENTENCES

9. Directions.—Use some of the connecting words mentioned in Art. 8 and combine the fourteen simple sentences in Exercise III into six compound sentences.

Examples.—

1. The draftsman took the dimensions for the ironwork.
2. The draftsman's measurements were not accurate.
3. The ironwork did not fit.

The draftsman took the dimensions for the ironwork, but his measurements were not accurate and the ironwork did not fit.

1. The ironwork was made by the Acme Iron Company.
2. The ironwork was returned to the Acme Iron Company.
3. Their draftsman had made the mistake.

The ironwork was made by the Acme Iron Company and their draftsman had made the mistake; therefore, the ironwork was returned to them.

EXERCISE III

More Things Seen in a Machine Shop

1. The floor was not level.
2. The lathe belt did not run true.

1. The apprentice had been in the shop for only one week.
2. The apprentice did not know how to adjust the machine.

1. The new driving belt was slipping.
2. The foreman put some rosin on the belt.

1. The superintendent ordered eighteen rat-tailed files of assorted sizes.
2. The clerk ordered only eight rat-tailed files.
3. The manager reproved the clerk.

1. The laborer could not hold the iron pipe fast in the old vise.
2. The laborer held the iron pipe firmly with the pipe wrench.

1. The young machinist did not wear the goggles.
2. The young machinist got emery dust in his eyes.
3. The young machinist's eyes were very painful.

COMPOSING COMPOUND SENTENCES

10. Directions.—Write one simple sentence about each of the first two words in Exercise IV. Then combine these two sentences into one compound sentence by using one of the connecting words in Art. **8.** Try to have these two simple sentences so related in thought that the compound sentence will make good sense. Then write a simple sentence for each of the next two words and combine them into a compound sen-

tence. Thus continue until you have written twelve simple sentences and six compound sentences.

If you feel uncertain concerning the pronunciation of any of these words or the use of any of the tools, look up the words in your dictionary. Also turn to page 657 of the dictionary for illustrations of tools, so you may see how these tools look.

EXAMPLE.—

He could not find the *pliers.*
He cut the wire with the *hatchet.*
He could not find the pliers; therefore, he cut the wire with the hatchet.

EXERCISE IV

TOOLS USED BY A CARPENTER

hammer	pincers	monkey wrench
punch	screwdriver	pliers
gimlet	vises	try-square
chisel	hatchet	bevel

A DICTIONARY LESSON ABOUT TERMS USED IN BUILDING

11. Directions.—Divide into syllables, mark the accent, give the form for the correct pronunciation, and write the definition of each of the fifteen words in Exercise V. Refer to the dictionary. Where more than one definition is given, select the one that defines your word as a building term.

EXAMPLE.—

Building (bĭld′ĭng): A structure put up for use or convenience, as a house, a church, etc.

EXERCISE V

TERMS USED IN BUILDING

building	masonry	bungalow
fireproof	mortar	lavatory
girders	residence	architecture
flagstones	vestibule	corridor
veranda	cement	partition

COMPOSING AND COMBINING SIMPLE SENTENCES

12. Directions.—For Exercise VI write a simple sentence concerning each of the words in Exercise V. Then from the simple sentences you have written, form at least five compound sentences, having each of your compound sentences contain two or more of the thoughts expressed in the simple sentences.

EXAMPLE.—

That building will be finished by June first.
It will not be fireproof.
That building will be finished by June first, but it will not be fireproof.

CLASSIFYING SENTENCES AS SIMPLE OR COMPOUND

13. Directions.—Copy the sentences in Exercise VII and state concerning each sentence whether it is simple or compound. Then separate the compound sentences into the simple sentences of which they are composed.

EXAMPLES.—

1. John went to work this morning, but Henry was ill and remained at home. A compound sentence consisting of the following simple sentences:

John went to work this morning.
Henry was ill.
He remained at home.

2. The girls are playing in the street. Simple.

EXERCISE VII

1. John went to work this morning, but Henry was ill and remained at home.
2. The girls are playing in the street.
3. The American army fought bravely and helped to win the war.
4. The potatoes in that basket have been frozen.
5. An automobile came for us, but we were unable to go.
6. He assisted the farmers occasionally in the lighter labors of their farms, helped to make hay, mended the fences, took the horses to water, drove the cows from pasture, and cut wood for the winter fire.
7. Every breeze wafts intelligence from country to country; every wave rolls it; all give it forth, and all in return receive it.—Webster.

8. Will the carpenter build the garage for Mr. Adams?
9. Go to the store immediately and ask the grocer for five pounds of sugar.
10. My work is very difficult but I enjoy it.

MISCELLANEOUS COMMON ERRORS

14. In preceding lessons your attention has been called to numerous errors common in the speech of many persons. Here are given examples of similar mistakes. Go over these, checking those you use, those that you hear your friends use, and those that you cannot correct. Then learn the correct expressions. If you find yourself using one of the wrong forms, discard it. Say the right one until it comes to you naturally. Each incorrect expression you learn to avoid means a step in the right direction—improvement in your use of English.

Don't Say	*Do Say*
I disremember what he said.	I do not remember what he said, *or* I forget what he said.
Mary has boughten a new dress.	Mary has bought a new dress.
He went unbeknownst to me.	He went unknown to me, *or* He went without my knowing he was going.
Get off from the car at Spruce street.	Get off the car at Spruce street.
Be that as it will.	Be that as it may.
Feel of this material.	Feel this material.
John was very pleased with the car.	John was very much pleased with the car.
She drownded herself.	She drowned herself.
The soldiers attackted the enemy.	The soldiers attacked the enemy.
He hardly never calls here.	He hardly ever calls here.
The wind blowed hard during the night.	The wind blew hard during the night.
Let us hope there won't anybody come.	Let us hope that nobody, *or* no one, will come.
He said he would settle the bill.	He said he would pay the bill.
I shall wire him today.	I shall telegraph him today.
I told him you was here.	I told him you were here.
Was you at work yesterday?	Were you at work yesterday?
Let us go someplace.	Let us go somewhere.

Don't Say	*Do Say*
He can't do nothing.	He can do nothing.
Let's you and I go.	Let you and me go.
This book is no good.	This book is not good, *or* This book is not interesting.
He feels very poorly.	He feels very ill.
Where will I see you?	Where shall I see you?
Where will I find it?	Where shall I find it?
John learned me that play.	John taught me that play.
Wherever is he going?	Where is he going?
A lot of men were there.	A number of men were there.
The most of the boys went.	Most of the boys went.
There's ten of them here.	There are ten of them here.
I cannot see no house.	I can see no house.
My brother he went away yesterday.	My brother went away yesterday.
All the rents have been raised.	All the rents have been increased.
I wisht I'd of seen her.	I wish I had seen her.
I wisht I'd of known him.	I wish I had known him.
I need new shoes the worst kind.	I very much need new shoes.
I'll walk a piece with you.	I'll walk a short distance with you.
I have a date with the doctor.	I have an appointment with the doctor.
Have you a date for Tuesday evening?	Have you an engagement for Tuesday evening?
Don't they have street cars in your town?	Are there no street cars in your town?
I wish I was rich.	I wish I were rich.
It is of no use to write.	It is useless to write.
The two pictures are both alike.	The two pictures are alike.
I'd sooner go at once.	I'd rather go at once.
She seems kind of sleepy.	She seems rather sleepy, *or* She seems somewhat sleepy.
If it don't fit you, we shall alter it.	If it doesn't fit you, we shall alter it.
Ain't you glad he came?	Aren't you glad he came?
Ain't your mother here?	Isn't your mother here?
I shall except this invitation.	I shall accept this invitation.
This chair needs fixing.	This chair needs repairing.
I'd love to go with you.	I'd like to go with you.
I had a strange thing happen to me this morning.	A strange thing happened to me this morning.
We shall leave later on.	We shall leave later.

15. Directions.—After you have studied Art. **14**, and have noted how the errors in the given sentences can be corrected, write correctly the sentences in Exercise VIII.

EXAMPLE.—

1. John said he did not remember what you told him.

EXERCISE VIII

1. John said he disremembered what you told him.
2. Helen has a date with the dentist.
3. They wired me that they would be here at noon.
4. They told us this picture is no good.
5. Mother learned me how to bake bread.
6. A lot of children were playing in the street when the accident occurred.
7. Was you in town this week?
8. Ain't you going with us? No, I ain't.
9. They certainly look kind of dirty.
10. Our refrigerator needs fixing.

SPELLING WORDS

16. You will need to use most of these words frequently. Learn their correct spelling so that you will write them correctly whenever you have occasion to write them. Also learn their pronunciation and meanings. Use them occasionally in sentences, so that they will not appear strange to you.

WORDS TO BE LEARNED

eager	elbow	English	ever
earliest	election	enter	everything
earned	electric	entered	evidence
earnest	elevator	entertain	exert
earth	emergency	entitle	expensive
easiest	employe	entrance	experience
effort	emptied	envelope	explain
either	endure	equal	explosion
elaborate	engage	estimate	extra

faded
failed
fairies
fairly
fairy
faithful
falling
false
family
famous
father
faucet
feather

feature
feeble
fence
fever
field
fiery
fighting
figure
filthy
finally
finger
finish
fireproof

flames
flannel
flight
flood
floor
foolish
forehead
foreign
forenoon
forest
forgive
fortune
fought

found
fourteen
freckles
freeze
freight
frighten
frozen
funeral
furious
furnace
furnish
furniture
further

gamble
garage
garden
garret
gasoline
gather
geese
gentleman

gentlemen
getting
ginger
glasses
gloomy
gloves
glycerine
goes

good-by
good night
govern
grain
granary
grapes
grasshopper
gravy

grease
greasy
grocery
groceries
ground
guard
guilty
gutter

habit
halves
hammer
handful
handkerchief
handsome
happened

hardware
hatchet
headache
heat
heaven
heavier
heavy

herself
hint
hired
holiday
homely
honest
honor

horrible
hospital
howled
hundred
hunger
hungry
husband

THE HOUSE

floor
porch
parlor
kitchen
nursery

closet
garret
fireplace
chimney
cupboard

cellar
hearth
mantel
furnace
doorstep

attic
entry
pantry
dining-room
staircase

FOOD

veal
tarts
toast
gruel
honey
salad

mutton
biscuit
noodles
crackers
waffles
catchup

broth
cutlet
conserve
muffins
porridge
chowder

hominy
custard
dumpling
doughnut
sauerkraut
omelet

BUILDINGS

manse	tower	lighthouse	dormitory
warehouse	post office	homestead	opera house
factories	asylum	sawmill	conservatory
academy	mansion	dwelling	kindergarten
boathouse	seminary	breweries	monastery
arena	parsonage	libraries	cottage
prison	palace	rectory	abbey

BIRDS

owl	quail	cuckoo	vampire
dove	stork	sparrow	pheasant
crow	grouse	starling	oriole
lark	crane	petrel	vulture
gull	snipe	parrot	partridge
swan	plover	ostrich	bluejay
thrush	raven	pigeon	bobolink
ruff	eagle	heron	nightingale
wren	condor	peacock	woodpecker
hawk	linnet	swallow	pelican

WHAT BIRDS DO AND HAVE

coo	whir	warble	beak
caw	poise	twitter	talon
chirp	perch	whistle	pinion
cheep	carol	migrate	feathers
soar	hover	wings	plumage

TREES

fir	cedar	spruce	basswood
elm	maple	linden	sycamore
oak	walnut	dogwood	catalpa
pine	hemlock	hickory	boxwood
palm	cypress	chestnut	palmetto
larch	poplar	redwood	magnolia
beech	willow	rosewood	sassafras
birch	holly	butternut	mahogany
balsam	banyan	sequoia	persimmon

PERSONAL QUALITIES

truth	sagacity	treachery	temerity
honor	sanctity	cowardice	presumption
mercy	humility	reticence	arrogance
patience	heroism	loquacity	fascination
fealty	stoicism	innocence	complacency
loyalty	ferocity	parsimony	geniality
honesty	duplicity	conscience	diffidence

INSECTS

bee	gnat	ant	dragon-fly
wasp	moth	weevil	bumblebee
flea	roach	mosquito	butterfly
locust	beetle	glowworm	katydid
hornet	cricket	silkworm	grasshopper
shrimp	scarab	scorpion	tarantula

ANIMALS

boar	bison	badger	porcupine
goat	lion	alpaca	kangaroo
deer	camel	hyena	jaguar
wolf	otter	panther	elephant
moose	monkey	squirrel	antelope
rabbit	giraffe	buffalo	crocodile
reindeer	weasel	gorilla	rhinoceros
ermine	gopher	chamois	dromedary
beaver	serpent	leopard	hippopotamus
zebra	raccoon	tiger	armadillo

WE SHOULD BE

good	cordial	helpful	civil
frank	sincere	thoughtful	obliging
prompt	loving	genial	generous
honest	truthful	studious	obedient
noble	careful	patient	temperate
polite	hopeful	courteous	industrious

CORRECTING MISSPELLED WORDS

17. Directions.—The sentences in Exercise IX contain some misspelled words. Determine which words are spelled incorrectly. Then write the sentences, being careful to spell each word properly.

EXAMPLE.—

1. Our old shepherd dog is very faithful.

EXERCISE IX

1. Our old shepherd dog is very faithfull.
2. Whenever mother has a hard hedache, she gos to her room and lies down.
3. This cottege has a large parler and a small kitchen.
4. Can you explane why he has so many freckels?
5. Go to the grosery and buy a basket of grapes, a pound of crakers, and a package of hominy.
6. That gentelman is very handsom.
7. This garege will hold four cars.
8. My experence with elevaters shows that electric ones are the best.
9. The cupbord contains all kinds of food—saleds, biscuits, conserves, and other good things.
10. You should not gambel.

REVIEW EXERCISE

(1) Copy the following story and supply all needed capital letters, all needed periods, and all needed question marks.

(2) Copy from the story two simple declarative sentences.

(3) Copy from the story two simple interrogative sentences.

(4) Copy from the story four compound sentences.

PERSEVERANCE WINS

(PART 1)

about thirty years ago i stepped into a bookstore in cincinnati in search of some books that i wanted while i was there, a ragged boy, not over twelve years of age, came in to ask whether they had any "geographies" to sell

"yes, we have plenty of them"

"how much do they cost"

"they cost one dollar, my lad"

"i did not know that they were so dear"

he turned to go out and even opened the door, but closed it again and came back "i have only sixty-two cents," said he "will you let me have the book and wait awhile for the rest of the money" with great anxiety the lad looked for the answer and when the man refused his request he seemed to shrink within his ragged clothes the disappointed little fellow looked up at me with a poor attempt at a smile and left the store

i followed and overtook him "what will you do now"

"i shall try another place, sir"

"shall i go, too, and see how you succeed"

"o, yes, if you like," said he, in surprise

four different stores i entered with him, and four times i saw the childish face cloud at a harsh refusal

"will you try again"

"yes, sir; i shall try them all, or I should not know whether i could get one"

(To be Continued)

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 7)

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

THE CLAUSE

1. We have learned that a *simple sentence* expresses one complete thought and that a *compound sentence* is two or more simple sentences united. Now we wish to study a third kind of sentence.

Some one says to you, *My brother has returned.* This simple sentence may be unsatisfactory because you do not know where the brother was. The thought is made more satisfactory by adding another simple sentence; as, *My brother has returned, and my brother was in Iowa.* This is a compound sentence. But the same thought can be expressed in a shorter and more pleasing form by saying, *My brother,* WHO WAS IN IOWA, *has returned.*

Now notice four things about the expression, *who was in Iowa.*

1. It takes the place of the simple sentence, *My brother was in Iowa.*

2. It is added to the first simple sentence to make the meaning clearer and more complete.

3. It contains a subject—*who,* and a predicate—*was in Iowa.*

4. Like the simple sentence, it expresses a thought; but this thought is not complete and independent. Without the rest of the sentence you would not know *who* was in Iowa. This expression, which is not itself a complete, independent thought, but is added to the simple sentence to make the thought clearer and more complete, is called a *clause.*

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

2. Definition.—A group of words expressing an incomplete, dependent thought, and added to a sentence to make its meaning clearer and more complete, is called a **clause.**

3. Definition.—A *simple sentence* with one or more *clauses* joined to it is called a **complex sentence.**

4. The clauses in the following complex sentences are italicized. The other part of each sentence forms the simple sentence foundation:

The carpenter, *who lives next door,* built the bungalow.
There is a garage on the lot *that Mr. Brown owns.*
The boy lost the letter *that I gave him to mail.*
Since you have worked so hard, you may have a vacation.
When you finish this work, you may go home.
The men left the shop *as soon as the whistle blew.*
The boys went to Detroit, *where work is plentiful.*
The story, *which you told me,* is not true.
If it does not snow, we may go hunting.

CONNECTING WORDS FOR CLAUSES

5. In the complex sentences just illustrated, the clauses are joined to the simple sentence foundation by means of some such connecting word as *who, that, since, when, as soon as, where, which, if.* The following list contains the words most frequently used to join clauses to simple sentences:

after	if	till	wherever
although	lest	unless	whether
as	provided	until	which
as if	since	what	while
as long as	so that	when	who
because	than	whenever	whom
before	that	where	whose
for	though	whereas	why

INDICATING THE SIMPLE SENTENCE FOUNDATION AND THE CLAUSE IN COMPLEX SENTENCES

6. Directions.—Copy the sentences in Exercise I, and in each one underscore the simple sentence foundation with one line and the clause with two lines. Notice that the clause may occur at the beginning, at the end, or within the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—

1. When the children go to school, they take the cows to the field.
2. Charles, who studies hard, is learning rapidly.

EXERCISE I

1. When the children go to school, they take the cows to the field.
2. Charles, who studies hard, is learning rapidly.
3. Where the bee sucks honey, the spider sucks poison.
4. The turkeys were near the apple orchard when we saw them.
5. When the bell rang, the thrashers came to dinner.
6. The pigs, after they broke through the fence, spoiled the garden.
7. Grasshoppers, which are very numerous, are harmless.
8. The harvesters stood under the hickory-nut tree while it rained.
9. As the sun nears the western horizon, the cows come lowing along the lane.
10. The sheep ran to the trough when they saw the farmer coming with the salt.
11. While the shepherd dog was dozing, the sheep were escaping.
12. The log near which we saw the rattlesnake, was much decayed.
13. Timothy is the most valuable of all kinds of grass that are raised on the farm.
14. The farmer, who leads an independent life, is happy.
15. Leghorn hens, which are good layers, are hearty eaters.

CLAUSES IN WHICH THE CONNECTING WORD IS NOT EXPRESSED

7. Clauses Having the Connecting Word Omitted. In the sentences given in Art. **4** and in Exercise I, the connecting word introducing the clause is expressed in each instance. There are many instances, however, in which the connective is not expressed, but in which it is merely clearly implied. This is the case in the sentence, *Father thinks it is time to go,* for careful scrutiny of the sentence shows that it means, *Father thinks that it is time to go* and that the connecting word *that* is clearly implied, or understood, before the clause, *it is time to go.*

In the following examples the connecting word is implied, not expressed, in the first form of each sentence. In the second form, this understood connective is expressed.

EXAMPLES.—

1. He assured me he would be here at six o'clock.
   He assured me (that) he would be here at six o'clock.

2. All the men you see around the table, are railroad presidents.
   All the men (whom) you see around the table, are railroad presidents.

3. Ten of the trees we cut down yesterday measured over six feet across the stump.
   Ten of the trees (which) we cut down yesterday measured over six feet across the stump.

8. Clauses That Are Quotations.—There is another class of clauses that cannot be distinguished by the connective, but that must be recognized in some other way. These are clauses that tell the exact thought or words that some person uttered. These expressions, which are called quotations, would be sentences were they used alone, but when used in connection with some such expression as *he said, she replied*, etc., are really clauses completing or explaining the simple sentence. Clauses that are quotations are not joined to the sentence by connecting words, but they can readily be found by observing whether the exact language of the speaker is used and whether they are enclosed in the marks (" ") called quotation marks.

"Will you ship the goods at once?" asked Mrs. Brown.
Mary replied, "I shall be ready at eight o'clock."
"I found a crocus, the first sign of spring," said Jane.
"Why, this is not what I want," he remarked promptly.

"*Will you ship the goods at once?*" is enclosed within quotation marks, and indicates the exact words used by Mrs. Brown. These words are necessary to form a complete sentence, for we would not know what Mrs. Brown asked if we used merely the words *asked Mrs. Brown*. The quotation in this sentence forms a clause.

In each of the other sentences, the quoted element constitutes a clause.

INDICATING THE CLAUSE IN COMPLEX SENTENCES

9. Directions.—Copy the complex sentences in Exercise II, supply the omitted connectives in the sentences that do not contain quotations, and enclose these connectives in marks

of parenthesis. Then indicate the clauses by underscoring, and the connectives by writing *c* under them.

EXAMPLES.—

1. The weather vane (that) you see on the barn is pointing toward the west.
   c
2. "The rain will come from the east," said the farmer.
3. Make hay while the sun shines.
   c

EXERCISE II

1. The weather vane you see on the barn is pointing toward the west.
2. "The rain will come from the east," said the farmer.
3. Make hay while the sun shines.
4. The surveyors carefully indicated the position the fence should occupy.
5. After the roads are repaired, the farmer and his hired man will build the fence.
6. Uncle John said, "The cattle can no longer break into the corn field."
7. The work was delayed because the rain fell steadily for two days.
8. When the storm ceased, the work was completed.
9. The men we saw near the barn yesterday morning, were the tramps who stayed in the barn during the night.
10. The hired man, who is usually very careful, forgot to lock the barn door.

HOW TO PUNCTUATE CLAUSES

10. The *clause* is closely related to the rest of the sentence and causes but slight variation in its thought. Hence, we separate it from the rest of the sentence by the *comma* (,), which is the pause used to show the least change in the thought of the sentence. By observing closely this use of the comma in this course of study and in your reading, you will come to use it correctly.

11. Rules for the Comma With the Clause.—Careful study of the following general rules and the examples under each will help you to understand the use of the comma with the clause in most cases.

Rule I.—*Place the comma after a clause when the clause is at the* **beginning** *of a sentence.*

EXAMPLES.—

When the president of the bank returned, the directors held a special meeting.

As soon as the car was repaired, we started on our way.

In these two sentences, the clauses *when the president of the bank returned* and *as soon as the car was repaired* occur at the beginning, and for this reason a comma is placed after each of them.

Rule II.—*In most cases, place one comma before and another after a clause that is* **within** *the sentence.*

EXAMPLES.—

The receiving teller, *who detected the counterfeit money,* was highly complimented.

Father's birthplace, *which was a small log cabin,* was in the state of Illinois.

The clauses *who detected the counterfeit money* and *which was a small log cabin* occur within the sentences, and a comma is properly placed both before and after each clause.

In the preceding examples the clauses begin with the word *who* and *which,* respectively, and commas properly separate these clauses from the other parts of the sentences. It frequently happens, however, that a clause used within a sentence begins with the word *that* or some such connective as *when, where,* etc. In such cases, the commas are usually omitted or one is placed after the clause but not before it. Note the following:

The books *that are on the table* belong to me.

A wagon *that was standing by the roadside* was our only shelter.

The story *that he told,* was not believed by his friends.

In the first two sentences no commas separate the clauses from the other parts of the sentences; in the last sentence, a comma occurs at the end of the clause.

Rule III.—*When a clause is at the* **end** *of a sentence, usually no comma is needed before it.*

EXAMPLES.—

The paying teller cashed my check *after my friend identified me.*

The bank refused to cash his check *because he had overdrawn his account.*

No commas are needed before the clauses *after my friend identified me* and *because he had overdrawn his account* since these clauses occur at the end of the sentences.

Rule IV.—*When a clause is a quotation, it should usually be set off by a comma.*

EXAMPLES.—

Father exclaimed, "Why did you not come immediately?"

"I am extremely tired tonight," said Harvey.

In these two sentences the clauses *Why did you not come immediately* and *I am extremely tired tonight* are quotations, and are correctly separated from the rest of the sentences by commas.

MARKING AND PUNCTUATING CLAUSES

12. Directions.—Copy the complex sentences in Exercise III. With a ruler and a sharp-pointed pen or pencil neatly draw one line under each clause. Write a small *c* under each connecting word. Insert commas according to the rules in Art. **11** and write, at the end of the sentence, the number of the rule for their use or omission in that sentence.

EXAMPLES.—

1. When we saw him, he was sleeping. 1.
   c
2. Horses, which are very faithful animals, should be treated
   c
   kindly. 2.
3. Did you see the chickens hide while the large hawk was flying
   c
   over the barnyard? 3.

In example 1, the clause *when we saw him* occurs at the beginning of the sentence and the comma is placed after this clause according to rule I. In example 2, the clause *which are very faithful animals* occurs within the sentence and begins with the word *which.* The commas are used according to rule II. In the third example, the clause *while the large hawk*

was flying over the barnyard is at the end of the sentence and rule III governs the omission of the comma.

EXERCISE III

USING THE COMMA WITH THE CLAUSE

1. That old cow which you saw near the barn was given to me by my father.
2. That high tank was empty while the force pump was broken.
3. When the tank is empty we have to draw water with the rope and windlass.
4. The milkmaid screamed when she saw a harmless water snake in the spring house.
5. "You should not leave those bars down when the sheep are in that field" said father.
6. Those odd-looking animals on that tree which we call measuring worms Uncle Richard calls geometrids.
7. John asked "Did you give the horses some hay as soon as you curried them?"
8. The mare tried to injure the driver whenever he entered her stall.
9. What fired the stable in which were those valuable milch cows?
10. The scores of swallows that you see in the evening have their nests under the eaves of the barn.
11. Did your son hurt himself when he fell through the straw shed?
12. How frightened the muley cow was when the boy fell on her back!
13. How we pity those little chicks that are so seriously afflicted with the gapes!
14. When the butcher comes tomorrow we shall sell him three calves, one heifer, two rams, and a steer.
15. He put a little phosphate on each hill after he covered the potatoes.

COMPOSING COMPLEX SENTENCES FROM SIMPLE SENTENCES AND CLAUSES ABOUT FARM LIFE

13. Directions.—From the ten *simple sentences* and the ten *clauses* in Exercise IV, compose, write, and punctuate neatly ten *complex sentences* by joining to each simple sentence that clause which you think will make the best sense. The clause may be written before, after, or within the simple sentence. Choose that form which sounds best and most clearly expresses the meaning. Supply needed commas according to the rules in Art. **11.**

EXAMPLES.—

Simple Sentences

1. The farmer was quite happy.
2. On one corner of the farm is a dense forest.
3. We must bury the apples and the cabbage.

Clauses

1. whose large fall crops were safely housed
2. for which a large sum has been offered the owner
3. before the ground is frozen

Complex Sentences

1. The farmer, whose large fall crops were safely housed, was quite happy.
2. On one corner of the farm is a dense forest for which a large sum has been offered the owner.
3. Before the ground is frozen, we must bury the apples and the cabbage.

EXERCISE IV

COMBINING SIMPLE SENTENCES AND CLAUSES

Simple Sentences

1. Our rural mail box is at the end of the short lane.
2. The driver was maimed for life.
3. He bedded the horses well.
4. The horse's mane was badly tangled by thistles.
5. The bucket fell to the bottom of the well.
6. We decided to sink an Artesian well.
7. The air in the spring house is quite cool today.
8. The robin is building a nest in the cornice of our house.
9. The air is sweetly scented.
10. The farmer sent for a veterinary surgeon.

Clauses

1. which leads to the house
2. who fell in front of the reaper's knives
3. after he had bedded the cows
4. that grow in the pasture
5. when the rusty bail broke
6. where the lane turns toward the barn
7. although it is very hot outside
8. which you see swinging and singing on the topmost bough of our walnut tree
9. whenever those fragrant roses are in bloom
10. because the old white horse was very sick

COMPOSING, MARKING, AND PUNCTUATING COMPLEX SENTENCES

14. Directions.—Combine each group of simple sentences in Exercise V into one *complex sentence* by using one of the *connecting words* given in Art. **5.** Do not use the same connecting words too often. Write the clause before or after or within the simple sentence, as you think sounds best and most clearly expresses the thought. Draw one line under each clause, write a small *c* under each connecting word, and insert commas according to the rules already given.

EXAMPLES.—

1. { Frogs are very noisy summer neighbors.
   { Frogs live in swamps and bogs.

Frogs, which live in swamps and bogs, are very noisy summer neighbors.
(c)

2. { We sold our spring pullets.
   { The price of poultry was high.

While the price of poultry was high, we sold our spring pullets.
(c)

3. { The wind was raw and chilly.
   { We could not cross the lake.

The wind was raw and chilly so that we could not cross the lake.
(c)

EXERCISE V

INCIDENTS IN FARM LIFE

1. { The farmhouse has a nice front yard.
   { It is up the lane.

2. { My rabbit ran very fast.
   { The dog has caught my rabbit.

3. { She has laid an egg.
   { That hen is cackling proudly.

4. { The hired man forgot to fasten the door.
   { He drove the cows into the stable.

5 { The cows ate the cabbage.
  { The cows got out of the stable.

6. { Our pet squirrel ran up the tree.
   { The squirrel saw the dog.

7. { The birch and willow trees grow very rapidly.
   { They grow near the water.

8. { Oak trees yield hard, heavy lumber.
   { The lumber is very valuable.

9. { The sweet potato is allied to the morning-glory.
   { It is highly prized for food.

10. { Those beautiful climbing roses were cut down.
    { The porch was painted.

CLASSIFYING SENTENCES

15. Directions.—Study each of the sentences given in Exercise VI and decide whether it is simple, compound, or complex. Then write each sentence and after it write the name of the class to which it belongs.

EXAMPLE.—

1. The farmer plowed the field and sowed it with wheat. Compound.

EXERCISE VI

1. The farmer plowed the field and sowed it with wheat.
2. Many more fires occur in the cities than occur in the country districts.
3. When the snow came, the farmers were unable to carry their milk to the station because the drifts were very deep.
4. A miner works with pick and shovel.
5. If you do not find the goods satisfactory, let me know at once.
6. A few years ago there were no railroads, and people traveled much on horseback.
7. Today the automobile is very popular.
8. The forest fires have been raging for several days and have caused much valuable timber to be destroyed.
9. Her basket was filled with apples, pears, and plums which she was taking to a sick friend.
10. As soon as I looked down, I saw footprints in the snow.

VARIETY IN SENTENCES

16. You have now learned about the various kinds of sentences and have had considerable practice in studying and classifying sentences when they are thought of separately. However, the only reason for making a study of sentences with regard to their classes as simple, complex, and compound is

that you may be able to express your thoughts in a way that will be effective as well as clear, and that will not be unpleasant to your hearers or readers. Just imagine how monotonous would be the conversation of a person who used only simple sentences, and how hard it would be to follow the thought of one who employed long compound sentences exclusively. If we wish to vary our expression, we must make use of all three kinds of sentences, for it is not a matter of indifference whether our sentences are simple, complex, or compound. Each class has its peculiar use.

The simple sentence is especially good for thoughts that are to be expressed in a short, concise manner. It can make only one statement, ask only one question, and express only one command. Interspersed among complex and compound sentences, it lends a pleasing variety, and very skilfully breaks up a succession of long, complicated thoughts.

The complex sentence finds its work in enabling us to show the relation of our ideas, for in a sentence of this kind, certain thoughts are, by means of clauses, given a less prominent place than the main thought. This class of sentence therefore is of use in making plain for the reader the comparative value of one's ideas. The simple sentence forces the reader to make the relation himself.

The compound sentence, like the complex, affords us an opportunity to overcome the awkwardness and the tiresome repetition that results from the excessive use of simple sentences. Several thoughts of equal importance can, by the judicious use of connectives, be joined into one sentence that will show just what relation they have to each other. Care should be exercised, however, not to join a number of thoughts in a loose, disconnected manner, but to mold them together so that the result will be effective as well as forcible.

17. The following letter is expressed in short simple sentences. Note how monotonous it is. A letter of this kind, although correct in every respect, certainly would not create a favorable impression on a reader.

SHAMOKIN, PA., March 15, 1920.

THE LACKAWANNA COAL COMPANY,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

I read your advertisement in *The Times*. You ask for an outside foreman. I wish to apply for the position. I have had ten years' experience in that kind of work. I feel qualified for the duties of such a position. I am in good health. I am thirty-five years old. My habits are the best. For three years I have been employed by the West View Coal Company. Their colliery has been closed down permanently. I enclose their recommendation. You may refer to Mr. R. N. Snyder, Pottsville, Pa. He will give you further information regarding my character and ability. I was formerly employed by him.

Do you desire a personal interview?

Yours truly,
JAMES NORTON.

18. With this form, compare the following, which is the same letter expressed so that it contains simple, complex, and compound sentences. Observe how much smoother and how much more effective it is. An employer is more likely to give consideration to a letter of this kind than to the previous one.

SHAMOKIN, PA., March 15, 1920.

THE LACKAWANNA COAL COMPANY,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

I read in *The Times* your advertisement for an outside foreman, and I wish to apply for the position. I feel qualified for the duties that such a position involves for I have had ten years' experience in that kind of work. I am thirty-five years old, am in the best of health, and have good habits.

The West View Coal Company, by whom I have been employed for three years, have closed down their colliery permanently. That is my reason for seeking new work. I enclose the recommendation that the President gave me. You may refer to Mr. R. N. Snyder, Pottsville, Pa., by whom I was formerly employed, for further information regarding my character and ability.

Please let me know if you desire a personal interview.

Yours truly,
JAMES NORTON.

19. A good plan is to study the sentences that occur in the letters, books, magazines, etc. that you read. Skilful writers take great pains to vary their constructions, and their works

may be examined with profit. In the following letter by Daniel Webster to his grandson the pleasing manner of expression and the varied form of sentences are striking characteristics.

WASHINGTON, March 6, 1848.

My dear Grandson:

Your father writes me from time to time, informing your grandmother and myself of the health of the family. But I wish to hear oftener, and to know more of you. You are now ceasing to be a mere child. You are ten years old, and it is time that you turned your attention seriously to your books, as I presume you do. It is time you should write me every week, and give me an account of your studies.

You must now, my dear namesake and grandson, think less of play and childish sports, and begin to pursue manly objects. I hear no complaint of you, and believe you are doing very well. I expect to find you when I see you next, not a mere child, thinking of nothing but play and amusements; but a manly boy, fond of the company and conversation of your father and mother, and laboring to improve your mind.

Two or three things I wish now to impress on your mind. First, you cannot learn without your own efforts. All the teachers in the world can never make a scholar of you, if you do not apply yourself with all your might.

In the second place, be of good character, and good behavior; a boy of strict truth, and honor, and conscience in all things. Have but one rule, and let that be, always to act right, and fear nothing but to do wrong.

Finally, "Remember your Creator, in the days of your youth." You are old enough to know that God has made you, and given you a mind, and faculties; and will surely call you to account.

Honor and obey your parents; love your sister and brother; be gentle and kind to all; avoid all peevishness and fretfulness; be patient under restraint, and when you cannot have what you wish.

Look forward, constantly, to your approaching manhood, and put off every day, more and more, all that is frivolous and childish. Providence has taken from us your dear uncle Edward, in the full vigor of his life. It is an awful affliction to us all; but we must submit to the will of God.

Now, you must see how soon you can become what he was, a companion to your father and mother, and a comfort to us all.

May Heaven bless you, my dear grandson, and may you continue an object of warm affection to all your family connections, and all your friends.

Your affectionate grandfather,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

RECONSTRUCTING LETTERS COMPOSED OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

20. Directions.—The letters in Exercise VII are written in short simple sentences. Although the meaning is plain, these letters would not create a favorable impression for they sound curt and unpolished. Rewrite the letters so that they express the same ideas but are composed of simple, complex, and compound sentences. Try to write them so that they read smoothly.

EXERCISE VII

Allentown, Pa., April 4, 1920.

Monsey Grocery Company,
1602 Monsey Ave.,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Please send me the following groceries:
2 cases Corn, Pride Brand,
4 cases Tomatoes, Pride Brand,
1 bbl. Granulated Sugar.

I have specified goods of the Pride Brand. Your last consignment of this brand was satisfactory. I shall expect this shipment to be of the same grade. Ship promptly by the Jersey Central, fast freight.

What discount do you allow? In ten days I will send my check for the amount of the bill.

Yours truly,
James Johnson.

Allentown, Pa., April 16, 1920.

Monsey Grocery Company,
1602 Monsey Ave.,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

On April 4, I sent you the following order:
2 cases Corn, Pride Brand,
4 cases Tomatoes, Pride Brand,
1 bbl. Granulated Sugar.

I asked you to make prompt shipment. I have not heard from you. I have not received the goods. My stock is now exhausted. Your failure to ship promptly has caused me inconvenience.

Kindly let me hear from you at once. Can you fill my order? I shall expect your reply by return mail.

Let me know about the discount.

Yours truly,
James Johnson.

COMBINING SIMPLE SENTENCES TO FORM COMPOUND SENTENCES AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

21. You have learned that simple sentences may be combined to form compound sentences and complex sentences, and that variation in sentence form is important if you would express yourself clearly, interestingly, and effectively. You must not think, however, that any two simple sentences may be joined to form one sentence, and that it does not matter whether the resulting sentence is compound or complex, for such is not the case. The thoughts must be so related that, when combined, they make a single impression—they form a well-connected thought.

If the ideas expressed by the simple sentences are of equal importance, they may be combined into a compound sentence, but if the idea expressed in one simple sentence is somewhat dependent upon the other or subordinate to it, the combined sentence should usually be complex. Note the following:

This chair is very comfortable.
I use it every day. Simple sentences.
This chair is very comfortable and I use it every day. Compound sentence.
This chair is so very comfortable that I use it every day. Complex sentence.

Here the two simple sentences are combined in two ways —into a compound sentence and into a complex sentence. A little consideration will show that the complex sentence is the better one, for the use of the chair really depends upon its comfort—the two ideas are not of equal importance. In each of the following instances the complex form is to be preferred.

Many places are for rent.
I can find one. Simple sentences.
Many places are for rent and I can find one. Compound sentence.
Since many places are for rent, I can find one. Complex sentence.
The driver left the groceries.
I ordered them this morning. Simple sentences.
The driver left the groceries and I ordered them this morning. Compound sentence.
The driver left the groceries that I ordered this morning. Complex sentence.

22. In the foregoing illustrations, the thought in one simple sentence is dependent upon that in the other, so that when the sentences are combined, they should be written in the complex form. Frequently, however, each thought is independent of the other and of equal importance with it. When such is the case, the combined sentence should be compound, not complex.

The one soldier was brave and fearless.
The other was cowardly and afraid. Simple sentences.

The one soldier was brave and fearless; whereas, the other was cowardly and afraid. Compound sentence.

His youth was spent in riot and dissipation.
His old age was full of grief and pain. Simple sentences.

His youth was spent in riot and dissipation; his old age was full of grief and pain. Compound sentence.

23. Directions.—Consider carefully the simple sentences in Exercise VIII. Then combine each group of sentences into a compound sentence or a complex sentence, writing the form that best brings out the meaning. State whether each combined sentence is compound or complex.

EXAMPLE.—

1. Our mouths watered when we saw those red cherries. Complex.

EXERCISE VIII

1. Our mouths watered.
   We saw those red cherries.
2. The fire was raging furiously.
   Everything was in confusion.
   Children were screaming.
   Women were fainting from terror.
   Men were running to and fro trying to give aid to the wounded.
3. We expect to install a telephone in our farmhouse.
   The union line wires are strung.
4. They are replacing the old rail fences with neat wire ones.
   Wire fences give the farm a more attractive appearance.
5. The sky was overcast with dull gray clouds.
   A cold damp wind was blowing.
   The streets were covered with mud.
6. The ensilage was well preserved.
   We took it from the silo.

7. I was walking down Fifth avenue.
   I saw a very serious accident.
8. The soldier delivered the message to the general.
   The soldier returned to his duties at the barracks.
9. Our company fought very bravely.
   Our fighting was in vain.
   Our reinforcements did not come in time.
10. I came home from work.
    I saw the boys in the field.

THE COMMA AND THE SEMICOLON IN COMPOUND SENTENCES

24. Three rules for the use of the comma and of the semicolon in compound sentences follow:

Rule I.—*When a compound sentence is made up of two short simple sentences, the two principal parts are usually separated by the* **comma** (,).

EXAMPLES.—

The sledge hammer fell on his foot, but he walked home.
Will you bring the parcel to me, or shall I take it to you?

Note the comma after *foot* in the first sentence, and after *me* in the second sentence. These commas separate the principal parts of the compound sentences made up of two short simple sentences.

Rule II.—*When the members of a compound sentence are not joined by some connective, the two principal parts should usually be separated by the* **semicolon** (;).

EXAMPLES.—

Mary does not work here now; she has taken a position at the silk mill.

The boys were helping their father in the fields; the girls were assisting their mother with the housework.

In these two compound sentences, no connectives occur between the parts of the sentences. Therefore the semicolons properly separate the two main parts of each sentence.

When the statements of a compound sentence are short and closely connected, the comma may take the place of the omitted connective.

EXAMPLES.—

I came, I saw, I conquered.

The whip cracked, the coach started, and we were on our way.

The semicolon is generally used between the members of a compound sentence connected by *also, moreover, likewise, besides, yet, nevertheless, however, still, notwithstanding, therefore, consequently, hence.*

EXAMPLES.—

Twice were they defeated; *yet* they would not give up.

His father helped him with his work; *consequently* he was able to finish it on time.

Rule III.—*The semicolon should be used between the members of a compound sentence if one or both of the members is long, or when either contains a comma.*

EXAMPLES.—

When the members of the company held their annual meeting, their salesman was voted an increase in salary; consequently, he felt justified in buying the house which he had hoped to make his home.

If I had known this before you came, I should not have told him; but, being ignorant of the truth, I innocently hurt his feelings.

In these two sentences the main parts are rather long and contain commas. Therefore, the semicolons after *salary* and *him* are correctly used to separate the principal members of the sentences.

USING THE COMMA AND THE SEMICOLON IN COMPOUND SENTENCES

25. Directions.—Copy the compound sentences in Exercise IX. Separate the two principal parts of each sentence with the comma or the semicolon according to the rules just given, and insert the other necessary commas according to previous rules.

The principal parts of compound sentences are usually joined by the *connecting words,* already given in *Good English,* Part 6. Review this list.

EXERCISE IX

1. The burglars that entered the store through the back window blew open the safe with nitroglycerin moreover, evidently angered when they found no money they tore many leaves from the ledger and the cash book.

2. Mr. Albert, the foreman, boxed the shipments of pliers, pinchers, nippers, tongs, wrenches, and chisels and Mr. Sumner, the shipping clerk, wrote the bills of lading.

3. During the season, the hucksters bring to our door lettuce, onions, string beans, radishes, cucumbers, tomatoes, sweet corn, cherries, strawberries, raspberries, currants, and grapes consequently, we always have an appetizing variety of fruits and vegetables.

4. Because the smoke stack, or chimney, of the new locomotive was six inches too high it was returned to the boiler shop for alterations hence, the trial trip of this locomotive was delayed two weeks.

5. The gasoline tank of his automobile which he bought six months ago exploded therefore, he sent the car to the garage for repairs.

6. Mr. Prentiss, the efficient foreman for Mr. Brobst, said they had many orders on hand nevertheless, he promised to repair the automobile in three days.

7. The Armenians look to us for relief hundreds of thousands will perish unless America extends a helping hand.

8. I was very tired from my long walk yet I decided not to stop until I reached home.

9. As I entered the room I saw many men busily working but I did not know any of them.

10. The boys came saw the work that was to be done and went away complaining.

WRITING AN ORIGINAL LETTER CONTAINING SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

26. Directions.—For Exercise X, write a letter in which you put into practice what you have learned concerning the classes of sentences. This is to be a letter such as you would write to a friend or a relative. Make it as interesting as possible and show variety in the form of the sentences you use. It would be well for you to write your letter about some particular subject, such as a trip you have taken, an experience you have had, or some interesting thing you have seen.

Arrange the parts of your letter properly, being careful to use marks of punctuation and capital letters wherever they are necessary.

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS

Don't Say	*Do Say*
I should admire to do that.	I should like to do that.
We allowed that we could not go.	We said we could not go.
Our bowling team has downed every other team in the city.	Our bowling team has defeated every other team in the city.
They demanded me to pay.	They demanded payment from me, *or* They demanded that I should pay.
This lesson is considerable easier than the first one.	This lesson is much easier than the first one, *or* This lesson is less difficult than the first one.
That does first-rate.	That does very well.
Only gentlemen can vote in this state.	Only men can vote in this state.
Ladies will soon have the right to vote.	Women will soon have the right to vote.
Is your cook a colored lady?	Is your cook a colored woman?
She was chairlady of the committee.	She was chairman of the committee. (Rarely say chairwoman)
We sent it to Mrs. Dr. Brown.	We sent it to Mrs. Brown.
You certainly have nerve.	You are extremely impudent.
Nowhere near so many men came as we expected.	Not nearly so many men came as we expected.
Outside of Mary, all enjoyed themselves.	Aside from Mary, all enjoyed themselves.
John needs some new pants.	John needs some new trousers.
He seldom ever goes there.	He seldom goes there, *or* He seldom, if ever, goes there.
We saw lots of pretty hats.	We saw a number of pretty hats, *or* We saw many pretty hats.
Send me a postal.	Send me a postal card.
What he said made me mad.	What he said made me angry *or* indignant.
They come here every once in a while.	They come here occasionally.
This here suit is the one I like.	This suit is the one I like.
I knowed he would come.	I knew he would come.
She done the work yesterday.	She did the work yesterday.

Don't Say	*Do Say*
I seen him do it.	I saw him do it.
Why don't he come?	Why doesn't he come?
You had ought to go.	You ought to go.
You had ought to wear a warmer coat.	You ought to wear a warmer coat.
It's up to them to decide what shall be done.	It is for them to decide what shall be done.
We live handy to the shop.	We live close to the shop.
The latter end of the week.	The end of the week.
The latter end of the month.	The end of the month.
They are a good glove.	They are good gloves.
The boys were dressed both alike.	The boys were dressed alike.
She is a poor orphant, *or* She is a poor orphan child.	She is a poor orphan.
I knowed he would not come.	I knew he would not come.
She spoke as if it was true.	She spoke as if it were true.
They blame the failure on me.	They blame me for the failure.
Behave yourself like a good boy should.	Behave as a good boy should.
She is going to make me a visit.	She is going to pay me a visit, *or* She is going to visit me.
I didn't used to believe such stories.	I used not to believe such stories.
I didn't used to think concerning such things.	I used not to think concerning such things.
A lot of boys came to the ball game.	A number of boys came to the ball game, *or* Many boys came to the ball game.
They have took all my money.	They have taken all my money.
I must buy me a suit.	I must buy myself a suit.
You must buy you a pair of shoes.	You must buy yourself a pair of shoes.
Henry has broke his arm.	Henry has broken his arm.
I won't never tell nobody.	I won't ever tell any one, *or* I will never tell any one.
Get onto the train.	Get on the train.
He gave more than you think for.	He gave more than you think.
Will you loan me ten dollars?	Will you lend me ten dollars?
I am sorry you was not at home.	I am sorry you were not at home.
He said he would see me during the week.	He said he would see me sometime within the week.
Father has been out of his head all day.	Father has been delirious all day.
Mother has a bad cold.	Mother has a severe cold.
Are you angry, *or* mad, at me?	Are you angry with me?

Don't Say	*Do Say*
I shall be back soon.	I shall come back soon.
We do not carry the goods in stock.	We do not keep the goods in stock.
He is a new beginner.	He is a beginner.
There were many females present.	There were many women present.

SPELLING

idea	immediately	inches	increase
idle	impatient	inclose	indeed
ignorance	importance	include	independence
ignorant	important	income	independent
illness	impossible	incomplete	Indian
illustrate	imprison	inconvenience	indigestible
imaginary	improve	inconvenient	industrious
imagine	improvement	incorrect	industry
inflamed	inquire	intelligent	invite
inflammation	insane	intend	ironing
influence	insect	interest	irrigate
inform	inside	interrupt	isn't
information	inspect	into	issue
injured	instead	introduce	itches
injury	insurance	invitation	itself
jacket	joint	kennel	kitten
jail	jolly	kept	knapsack
jarred	journal	kernel	knead
jealous	journey	kerosene	knees
jelly	judgment	kettle	knife
jerked	juicy	killed	knitting
Jesus	July	kindling	knives
jewelry	jumped	kindness	knocked
jewels	jury	kissed	knowledge
joined	justice	kitchen	knuckles
ladder	leading	lighted	loafing
ladies	leather	lightning	loaves
language	leaves	limit	lonesome
lantern	lecture	linen	lounge
lapped	lemon	lining	lovable
later	lemonade	lion	lucky
laughed	letter	liquid	lumber
laundry	lettuce	liquor	lunch
lawyer	liberty	listening	luncheon
lazy	lied	little	lying

MILITARY TERMS

captain	militia	furlough	campaign
major	arsenal	commander	maneuver
colonel	redoubt	parole	commission
sergeant	breastworks	discipline	equipment
lieutenant	barracks	deserter	frontier
general	gunnery	cannonade	emissary
ensign	marshal	cutlass	equestrian

FLOWERS

tulips	larkspurs	pansies	sunflowers
asters	lilies	sweet peas	hollyhocks
lilacs	daisies	hyacinths	violets
clovers	marigolds	dandelions	geraniums
orchids	hawthorns	primroses	morning-glories
poppies	carnations	golden rod	chrysanthemums

WORDS USED AT ELECTIONS

polls	inauguration	amendment	participants
votes	delegates	challenge	rivalry
booth	politician	assemblage	minority
returns	affirmative	taxable	exclusively
caucus	congressman	treasury	electors
ballot	municipal	majority	candidate
borough	preliminary	protector	appointment
officials	Republicans	Democrats	Progressives
rumor	candidacy	precincts	non-partisan

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 8)

PUNCTUATION

IMPORTANCE OF PUNCTUATION

1. Definition.—The division of any written or printed composition into sentences, clauses, and other parts by various kinds of marks is called **punctuation.** The purpose of punctuation is to show the relations of the parts of a sentence to one another and to make clear the meaning of the writer.

2. Need of Punctuation.—Read the following paragraph aloud and as rapidly as possible:

just before reaching bretton woods we came to the old man of the mountains that natural wonder which many travel miles to see it is a stone image of a mans head jutting out from near the top of a huge peak and such a good resemblance that it seems it must have been carved by human hands the outlines of chin mouth nose and forehead are almost perfect and when the sun shines full upon it you can easily imagine that the old man is smiling down upon you it is claimed that the distance between the chin and the top of the forehead is forty feet but the whole is so far above you it does not appear much larger than a human head when we first saw it the clouds were resting lightly upon the forehead but they gradually lifted until the entire head could be distinctly seen the effect in the sunlight is most startling and one is not likely soon to forget it

This paragraph shows clearly the need of punctuation marks; for, if all matter were in this form, reading would be very difficult. Punctuation marks help the reader to see at a glance which words should be taken together, and aid in mak-

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

ing plain the meaning of the author. Note how much more easily and rapidly you can read the paragraph when it is properly punctuated.

Just before reaching Bretton Woods, we came to the Old Man of the Mountains, that natural wonder which many travel miles to see. It is a stone image of a man's head, jutting out from near the top of a huge peak, and such a good resemblance, that it seems it must have been carved by human hands. The outlines of chin, mouth, nose, and forehead are almost perfect, and when the sun shines full upon it, you can easily imagine that the Old Man is smiling down upon you. It is claimed that the distance between the chin and the top of the forehead is forty feet, but the whole is so far above you, it does not appear much larger than a human head. When we first saw it, the clouds were resting lightly upon the forehead, but they gradually lifted until the entire head could be distinctly seen. The effect in the sunlight is most startling, and one is not likely soon to forget it.

3. Importance of Correct Punctuation Illustrated. A clear understanding of an author's meaning often depends on the correct punctuation of his writing. A person who does not know the effect of marks of punctuation, may sign an important document whose obligation is entirely different from what he supposed when he read it. A writer may, by an ignorant or careless use of punctuation marks, express a meaning wholly different from his thought.

Observe the effect of punctuation in the examples that follow and you will realize the importance of giving much study to this topic.

Example 1.—Notice the difference in the meaning of each of the following sentences, caused by a change in punctuation without any change in the words.

Peter Jones, my neighbor said the boy is honest.
Peter Jones, my neighbor, said, "The boy is honest."
"Peter Jones, my neighbor," said the boy, "is honest."
Peter, Jones, my neighbor, said the boy is honest.

In the first sentence, the speaker is addressing Peter Jones and is telling him the neighbor's opinion of the boy. In the second sentence, the exact words of Peter Jones, the neighbor, are repeated. In the third sentence, the boy's exact words concerning Peter Jones, his neighbor, are expressed. In the fourth sentence, the speaker is addressing Peter, and is telling Peter that Jones, a neighbor, regards the boy as honest.

Example 2.—An ignorant barber is said to have hung this sign in his window:

What do you think
I'll shave you for nothing
And give you a drink

A passing tramp, who could regulate his pauses in writing much better than his passion for whiskey, read the sign thus:

What do you think!
I'll shave you for nothing
And give you a drink.

The tramp promptly entered, got his heavy beard removed, and demanded a free drink. The barber demanded his pay for the shave. The tramp refused and pointed to the sign in the window. The irate barber rushed out and read his sign thus:

What! Do you think
I'll shave you for nothing
And give you a drink?

Example 3.—Some years ago Congress passed a tariff bill, one clause of which provided that "all foreign fruit plants"—meaning plants to be transplanted in this country for experiment and raising fruit—"should be imported free of duty." The clerk, in transcribing the bill, carelessly inserted a comma after the word fruit, making it read: "all foreign fruit, plants," etc. This admitted, free of duty, all fruits, such as oranges, lemons, bananas, grapes, etc., and cost the government not less than $2,000,000 before Congress could meet to correct the mistake. That was an expensive little comma.

The manner of the distribution of a valuable estate has sometimes depended on the location of a punctuation mark in the will of the testator.

4. Usage in Punctuation.—At the present time there is but slight variation in punctuation among careful writers, for the rules for punctuation are definite and can be followed in most instances. It is true that no two writers would punctuate a long paragraph or an article in precisely the same way, for they would not be likely to take exactly the same meaning from it. It is also true that when two persons agree as to the meaning of a sentence, they do not generally differ much in its punctuation. Careful examination of the punctuation in good books, magazines, and newspapers shows that the principal rules are well established and are usually observed. Every

one, therefore, should learn these rules and employ the common marks of punctuation according to the rules.

The rules for punctuation are not difficult, though they cannot be mastered in a day. They must be memorized and then applied. Mere memorization will not be sufficient. Learn to apply the rules in what you write, and note how others have applied them. Think about the punctuation you use and see. Then after a while you will punctuate almost unconsciously.

5. The Punctuation Marks.—The principal marks used in punctuation are:

1. The Period (.)
2. The Question Mark (?)
3. The Exclamation Point (!)
4. The Comma (,)
5. The Semicolon (;)
6. The Colon (:)
7. The Hyphen (-)
8. The Quotation Marks (" ") and (' ')
9. The Marks of Parenthesis ( )

RULES FOR PUNCTUATION

THE PERIOD

Rule I.—*Use the period at the end of every sentence that is a statement or a command.*

EXAMPLES.—

Your books are on the table.
The men are threatening a strike.
Keep the dog away from the house.
Study carefully the rules for punctuation.

Rule II.—*Use the period after abbreviations.*

EXAMPLES.—

Mr.	J. B. Smith	Pa.
Jan.	Mass.	Ph. D.
lb.	qt.	etc.

THE QUESTION MARK

Rule III.—*Use the question mark at the end of every sentence or clause that asks a question.*

EXAMPLES.—

On what day will you return?
Did you say Mary was not well?
"Why will you not go?" he asked.

THE EXCLAMATION POINT

Rule IV.—*Place the exclamation point after words and sentences that utter an exclamation of surprise, fear, strong feeling, sudden emotion, or intense passion.*

EXAMPLES.—

Hurrah! the superintendent has given us a half holiday.
You scoundrel! Get out!

THE COMMA

Rule V.—*Use the comma to separate words or expressions that follow each other in a series.*

EXAMPLES.—

That bold, bad, malicious boy gives his parents much anxiety.

The seven colors of the rainbow in order are: (1) violet, (2) indigo, (3) blue, (4) green, (5) yellow, (6) orange, and (7) red.

"Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote."

In the first illustration the words *bold, bad,* and *malicious* form the series and are correctly separated by commas. In the second, the terms (*1*) *violet,* (*2*) *indigo,* (*3*) *blue,* (*4*) *green,* (*5*) *yellow,* (*6*) *orange,* and (*7*) *red* constitute the series. In the third, *sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish,* are expressions that follow each other in a series.

When connectives join the terms of a series, commas are not, as a rule, required. For example, if you write *Day nor night nor sunshine nor storm affected him* you do not need commas. Opinions differ somewhat regarding the use of the comma before the connective if the connective occurs only between the last two elements of the series. Some writers omit the comma before the connective, but the majority of

careful writers prefer to use it, claiming that it serves a useful purpose in keeping distinct the last two elements of the series. In some cases the retention of the comma prevents ambiguity.

EXAMPLES.—

Oranges, lemons, limes, and grapefruit belong to the same family. (Comma used before connective.)

Oranges, lemons, limes and grapefruit belong to the same family. (Comma omitted before connective.)

We have just received an order for ten chairs, five desks, and three book-cases.

He told them that he would return, that he would bring an army, and that he would save them from their enemies.

The last two sentences illustrate the punctuation advocated by the majority of careful writers.

Rule VI.—*Use the comma to set off the name of a person directly addressed, or the word used for his name.*

EXAMPLES.—

Come here, *Seldon,* and try on this coat.
Mr. Jones, we need a new emery wheel.
That is a good book, *my boy,* for you to read.
I will try, *Sir,* to profit by its information.

Note the punctuation of the words *Seldon, Mr. Jones, my boy,* and *Sir.*

Rule VII.—*Use the comma to set off words that immediately follow another word to explain it, or that mean the same thing as the word explained.*

EXAMPLES.—

Philadelphia, *the City of Brotherly Love,* is the metropolis of Pennsylvania.
Mr. Samson, *the vice-president,* took the chair.
Shep, *our pet collie,* drove the cows to the pasture.

In these sentences, the expressions *the City of Brotherly Love, the vice-president, our pet collie,* explain the words *Philadelphia, Mr. Samson, Shep,* respectively, and are correctly set off by commas. Note that it takes two commas to set off such explanatory expressions—one to precede the expression and one to follow it.

Sometimes, the explanatory expression is preceded by the word *or*. In such cases, the first comma should occur before *or*.

EXAMPLES.—

Maize, *or Indian corn,* was largely grown.

Long artificial mounds, *or dikes,* protect the lowlands of Holland, *or the Netherlands,* from the sea.

Rule VIII.—*Use the comma to set off, ordinarily, such words and expressions as the following:*

accordingly	however	no doubt
again	in a word	of course
as it happens	in brief	perhaps
as it were	in fact	resolved
besides	in short	secondly
consequently	indeed	therefore
finally	moreover	well
first	namely	why
further	no	yes

EXAMPLES.—

He admitted, *in short,* that he knew nothing about it.

We will come, *accordingly,* at two o'clock.

Consequently, the shops were closed.

Again, let me also call your attention to this fact.

Yes, he was a poor penman; and, *moreover,* he could not cipher accurately.

Rule IX.—*Use the comma to separate words repeated for emphasis.*

EXAMPLES.—

Truly, truly you are the thief I saw.

Certainly, certainly I will be there.

Rule X.—*Use the comma to show the omission of a word.*

EXAMPLES.—

Longfellow was a poet; Sumner, a statesman.

Mary has the better memory; John, the greater perseverance.

To err is human; to forgive, divine.

419 Spruce St., Scranton, Pa.

In the first three sentences *was* is omitted after *Sumner, has* after *John,* and *is* after *forgive*. The last illustration means *419 Spruce Street of Scranton in Pennsylvania,* and commas take the place of the omitted words *of* and *in*.

Rule XI.—*Use the comma to set off a direct quotation.*

EXAMPLES.—

Robert answered, *"Yes, Mother, I will come at once,"* and promptly stopped playing.

He read from Dickens, *"To Tiny Tim, who did not die, he was a second father."*

"Make way for liberty," he cried.

Notice that in these illustrations the exact words of the speaker or author are used. The rule, however, does not apply to indirect quotations. It is correct to write *He said that he would help us* but it is incorrect to write *He said, that he would help us.*

Rule XII.—*Use the comma to set off, ordinarily, a clause except when it ends the sentence.*

EXAMPLES.—

The clerks, *who had been working very hard,* enjoyed the ride.

When the whistle blew, the men quit work.

The banks were closed *as it was a holiday.*

Rule XIII.—*Use the comma, ordinarily, to separate the main parts of a compound sentence when those parts do not contain commas.*

EXAMPLE.—

The bookkeeper searched five hours, but he could not find the error in his trial balance.

Many compound sentences are so short and closely connected in thought that no comma is required to separate their parts; as,

The whistle blew and the factory quickly filled.

If the main parts of the compound sentence are not joined by some connecting word, a semicolon frequently takes the place of the comma; as,

We went to every house in the street; we searched carefully through all the alleys; we looked in all the outlying districts, but we could find no trace of the child.

He behaved like a madman; he tore his hair; he gnashed his teeth; he shouted demoniacally.

Rule XIV.—*Use the comma to set off, ordinarily, words or word groups out of their natural order or not closely and smoothly connected with the rest of the sentence.*

EXAMPLES.—

His manners, *too,* were becoming.
"To arms," *he cried,* and disappeared.
In response to your request, I enclose a check.
To do this, *I repeat,* will be fatal.
Speaking candidly, I was in fault.
The weather being unfavorable, we remained at home.
To tell the truth, I did not enjoy it.
His lecture, *on the whole,* was instructive.
The village smith, a mighty man is he.
His one daughter, *beautiful as ever,* was still at home.

Rule XV.—*Use a comma whenever one is necessary in order to make clear the meaning of the sentence.*

EXAMPLES.—

I have for sale a house with nine rooms, and a good saddle horse.
Lost.—A brown cow having a white face, and two sheep.
He was not very tall, and slenderly built.

These three sentences, as punctuated, are perfectly clear. But note the effect of removing the commas. If the comma were omitted from the first sentence, the reader might wonder, at first, how a house could have nine rooms and a good saddle horse. The comma shows which words should be considered together and helps the reader to see that both the house and the horse are for sale. In the second sentence, the comma helps to show that the sheep do not belong to the cow, while the comma after *tall* in the third sentence prevents the adverb *not* from modifying *built*. In all these sentences, the commas serve to separate words that might, at a hasty reading, be thought to belong together, whereas they are not related.

SUPPLYING NECESSARY PUNCTUATION

6. Directions.—Consider carefully the meaning of each sentence in Exercise I. Then write the sentences, supplying all necessary periods, question marks, exclamation points, and commas. Under each mark of punctuation you supply, give the number of the rule governing the use of that mark.

EXAMPLE.—

1. Apples, pears, peaches, and plums were grown by the farmers.
   V *V* *V* *I*

EXERCISE I

1. Apples pears peaches and plums were grown by the farmers
2. The soldier resolute though wounded would not surrender
3. He said "Come on let us go to their assistance"
4. Did you hear them shout "Rally to the flag boys"
5. At home in the streets in the stores in the shops everywhere the people were talking of the disaster
6. She wears a white middy blouse trimmed with blue and a blue sailor hat
7. The boys ran as fast as they could for their car left at six
8. Dr Brown came to see Mary my baby sister but he said that he could not help her
9. The post office stands on the southwest corner; the church on the northwest
10. Mr Williams whom you saw this morning said to us "Why does not Mrs Harper apply for the place"

THE SEMICOLON

Rule XVI.—*Use the semicolon to separate the main parts of a compound sentence when they are long and divided by commas.*

EXAMPLES.—

The ex-president, while passing through the town in an automobile, was recognized; and the people, who gathered quickly from all directions, gave him a hearty welcome.

The car of hay will be shipped tomorrow; the car of grain, Friday.

If you cannot use these goods, please return them at once; otherwise, kindly send us a check within ten days.

Rule XVII.—*Use the semicolon, ordinarily, before such expressions as* e. g., as, namely, viz., that is, i. e., *and* to wit, *when they introduce examples or illustrations.*

EXAMPLES.—

The name of that part is spelled in four ways; to wit, singletree, swingletree, whiffletree, and whippletree.

He frequently made errors in his conversation; e. g., *be* for *am, is* for *are,* and *was* for *were.*

He is a Scandinavian; i. e., he comes from Norway or Sweden, the Scandinavian peninsula.

He quoted from three modern statesmen; viz., Gladstone, Evarts, and Roosevelt.

He asked only one favor; namely, that he be permitted to see her before she left.

THE COLON

Rule XVIII.—*Use the colon to separate the main parts of a compound sentence when those parts are divided by the semicolon.*

EXAMPLES.—

Fearing an advance in price, which the conditions and reports of the market foreshadowed, the foundryman quickly ordered two cars of iron at last week's quotations; but his order was returned unfilled, because an advance had already occurred: therefore, he had to pay the higher price and he charged more for his castings.

Every one must, of course, think his own opinions right; for, if he thought them wrong, they would no longer be his opinions: but there is a wide difference between regarding ourselves infallible and being firmly convinced of the truth of our creed.

In the matter of convenience, the new library is vastly superior to the old: the ventilation is better; the light by day or night is almost perfect; and comfortable chairs may be found in all available places.

Rule XIX.—*Use the colon after the words* he said, as follows, these, thus, *etc., when they introduce a speech or are immediately followed by illustrations.*

EXAMPLES.—

He began his eloquent appeal *thus:* "I rise not to defend myself, but to appeal for others."

The items of his purchase were *as follows:*

1 pr. Shoes
½ doz. Hdkfs.
1 doz. pr. Men's Hose
2 Four-in-hand Ties

Three virtues of dog and man are *these:* courage, endurance, and affection.

Rule XX.—*Use the colon after the salutation at the beginning of a letter.*

EXAMPLES.—

Dear Sir: My dear Sir: Dear Mr. Jones:

Rule XXI.—*When the word "yes" or "no," in answer to a question, is followed by a continuation of the answer or by an explanation of it, a colon is required between the answer and its continuation.*

EXAMPLES.—

May we trust in the intelligence and the patriotism of the President? Yes: both have been fully demonstrated.

Do you live here, my boy? Yes, sir: I was born here.

Can you come this evening? No: since I saw you on Tuesday, my plans have been changed.

Rule XXII.—*Use the colon in writing the time of day in figures, or in expressing the chapter and verse in a reference to some book in the Bible.*

EXAMPLES.—

Work begins at 8:30 in the morning.

They arrived at 6:35 P. M.

He read Acts 26 : 8.

THE HYPHEN

Rule XXIII.—*Place the hyphen at the end of a line of writing or printing when it becomes necessary to divide a word and to write part of the word on the next line.*

EXAMPLE.—

> Within three days they would have completed the rush order for those five boilers if the cylinder head of the main engine had not cracked.

When necessary to break a word at the end of a line, always divide it between syllables. Do not divide a syllable. Never write part of a word of one syllable at the end of a line and the rest of that word at the beginning of the next line. Write the whole word on the next line. Never divide words of one syllable.

Rule XXIV.—*Use the hyphen to unite the parts of a compound word.*

EXAMPLE.—

The secretary ordered *twenty-four rat-tail* files and *seventy-five* feet of six and *one-half* inch *three-ply* solid leather belting.

NOTE.—A *compound word* is two or more simple words joined by a hyphen; as, *three-score, try-square, four-in-hand.*

QUOTATION MARKS

Rule XXV.—*Enclose with the quotation marks all words that are quoted or copied exactly from some speech or writing.*

EXAMPLES.—

The head druggist said, "Theodore, you may carefully fill this prescription while I go to lunch."

The superintendent called to our foreman, "I shall be back at four o'clock"; and hastily drove away.

He quoted from Bacon, "Knowledge is power."

All the passengers exclaimed, "How slowly the boat moves!"

Quotation marks are sometimes used to set off the titles of books, poems, etc. Such titles may also be indicated by means of Italics.

EXAMPLES.—

Have you seen the book "Industry and Trade"?

He sent me a copy of the poem "The Courtship of Miles Standish."

These sentences are also correctly written:

Have you seen the book *Industry and Trade?*

He sent me a copy of the poem *The Courtship of Miles Standish.*

If a quoted expression is interrupted by an interpolated element such as *he replied, they said,* two pairs of quotation marks are needed, one for each section.

EXAMPLES.—

"The book is mine," he replied, "but you may take it."

"Your story," he said, "is extremely improbable."

When one quotation is written within another quotation, the second quotation is inclosed in *single* quotation marks (‘ ’).

EXAMPLE.—

The lawyer asked, "Did you hear the pharmacist exclaim, 'My gracious! I made a mistake in that prescription!'?"

When the second, or inner, quotation ends the expression, the double quotation marks follow the single quotation marks with a space between them.

EXAMPLES.—

When I called on him, he said, "I am reading Milton's 'Paradise Lost.'"

Father said, "We were much startled when the man shouted 'Fire!'"

In a quotation made up of several paragraphs, quotation marks are placed at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the last.

Solomon's wisdom shines forth in these sayings:

"Better is little with the fear of the Lord, than great treasure and trouble therewith.

"Better is a dinner of herbs where love is, than a stalled ox and hatred therewith."

In Burroughs' "Winter Sunshine" we find the following bit of interesting information about foxes:

"In the Southern States the gray fox is often hunted in the English fashion; namely, on horseback, the riders tearing through the country in pursuit till the animal is run down and caught. This is the only fox that will tree. When too closely pressed, instead of taking to a den or a hole, it climbs beyond the reach of the dogs in some small tree.

"The red fox is the northern species, and is rarely found farther south than the mountainous districts of Virginia. In the Arctic regions it gives place to the Arctic fox, which most of the season is white.

"The prairie fox, the cross fox, and the black or silver-gray fox seem only varieties of the red fox, as the black squirrel breeds from the gray, and the black woodchuck is found with the brown. There is little to distinguish them from the red, except the color, though the prairie fox is said to be the larger of the two."

THE MARKS OF PARENTHESIS

Rule XXVI.—*Use the marks of parenthesis to enclose those letters or figures that mark or number subtopics;* as, *1, 2, 3,* in the following example:

The letter *y*, when used as a vowel, has three sounds: (1) *y*, as in *fly, sky, dry, style;* (2) *y*, as in *nymph, hymn, abyss, lyric;* (3) *y*, as in *myrrh, myrtle, zephyr.*

Rule XXVII.—*Use the marks of parenthesis to enclose signs and numbers used for reference.*

EXAMPLE.—

The speaker quoted from the Encyclopædia Britannica (Vol. IX, page 217) in support of his statement.

Rule XXVIII.—*Use the marks of parenthesis to enclose the question mark when its purpose is to express doubt or suspicion.*

EXAMPLE.—

The great (?) Commoner, on June 7 (?), 1842, made his eloquent (?) plea.

Rule XXIX.—*Use the marks of parenthesis to enclose those words and expressions which are thrown into a sentence to make an explanation and may be omitted without in any way limiting the sense.*

EXAMPLES.—

The man on the left (Mr. Williams, of Iowa) is my uncle.

I have lived a loyal citizen (hear, hear!) and a true patriot.

APPLYING THE RULES FOR PUNCTUATION

7. Directions.—Read carefully the sentences in Exercise II and determine what marks of punctuation best bring out the meaning of each sentence. Then copy the sentences and supply the necessary marks, writing under each mark the number of the rule that governs its use.

EXAMPLE.—

1. You, the boys of today, will be the manhood of tomorrow.
VII *VII* *I*

EXERCISE II

1. You the boys of today will be the manhood of tomorrow

2. I arose softly slipped on my clothes and opened the door suddenly

3. The whistles blew an hour ago consequently all the employes have left the factory

4. Hurrah he cried now we can go in our cars to the lake and try the fishing in the lower pond Be ready to start at four o'clock Wednesday morning

5. As men we admire the man that succeeds but as honest men we cannot admire the man that succeeds by dishonesty

6. I was born an American I will live an American I shall die an American Webster.

7. Mabel's mother said Be sure to come home at nine o'clock

8. It was as if every blade of grass every bed of sage every twig of cedar the flowers the trees the roads came to life at sight of the sun

9. He gave some very good reasons for this namely that the cost is too great that the time is too short and that there is no one here who knows how to do the work

10. For lunch we had bread and jam and nothing else could have pleased us more

11. Up up up goes the aeroplane

12. Everywhere Americans are giving up traveling in Europe for why should they go abroad when there is so much to be seen in their own country

ABBREVIATIONS

8. Definition.—The short and convenient forms that take the place of many words and expressions in frequent use are called **abbreviations.**

9. Advantages of Abbreviations.—In the following examples observe the advantages of the abbreviated forms.

Jamison Winthrop Archibald, Esquire
J. W. Archibald, Esq.

Bloomsburg, Columbia County, Pennsylvania, United States of America
Bloomsburg, Columbia Co., Pa., U. S. A.

Fifty-five pounds 6 ounces of Minnesota Flour
55 lb. 6 oz. Minn. Flour

10. Proper Use of Abbreviations. — Abbreviations should be used sparingly in letters. Formal letters, indeed, should contain no abbreviations except those of titles, of address, and of scholastic degrees. In business letters and familiar social letters, abbreviations may be used to some extent, but they should be those that are well understood and in common use.

In the heading, address, or superscription, it is customary and proper to abbreviate the name of the state, and also to use the abbreviations *St.* for street, *Ave.* for avenue, *Co.* for county. It is not advisable to use the Arabic figures for the names of numbered streets under ten, nor is it considered proper to use the abbreviations *N.*, *E.*, *S.*, and *W.*, for North, East, etc., in designating streets; thus, instead of *514 N. 7th St.* write *514 North Seventh St.* The name of a city should not be abbreviated; as, *Phila.* for Philadelphia, *N. O.* for New Orleans, *Balt.* for Baltimore, *Cin.* for Cincinnati.

The abbreviations that are likely to be required in correspondence are given in the accompanying classified list. It is

not intended, of course, that all these abbreviations shall be committed to memory. Scan the list carefully and note those most frequently used in correspondence; and obtain a good general idea of the various classes so that you may intelligently use the list for reference.

Most abbreviations end with a period. In contractions, which are abbreviations in which part has been omitted from the middle of the word, an apostrophe may be used to denote the omitted parts; as, *rec'd;* or the period may be used; as, *recd.* Both the period and the apostrophe should not be used. *Rec'd.* is wrong; *rec'd* or *recd.* is right.

LISTS OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SIGNS

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO THE UNITED STATES

United States	U. S.	Montana	Mont.
America, American	Am.	Nebraska	Nebr.
Alabama	Ala.	Nevada	Nev.
Arizona	Ariz.	New Hampshire	N. H.
Arkansas	Ark.	New Jersey	N. J.
Canal Zone	C. Z.	New Mexico	N. Mex.
California	Calif.	New York	N. Y.
Colorado	Colo.	North Carolina	N. C.
Connecticut	Conn.	North Dakota	N. Dak.
Delaware	Del.	Oklahoma	Okla.
District of Columbia	D. C.	Pennsylvania	Pa.
Florida	Fla.	Philippine Islands	P. I.
Georgia	Ga.	Porto Rico	P. R.
Illinois	Ill.	Rhode Island	R. I.
Indiana	Ind.	South Carolina	S. C.
Kansas	Kans.	South Dakota	S. Dak.
Kentucky	Ky.	Tennessee	Tenn.
Louisiana	La.	Vermont	Vt.
Maryland	Md.	Virginia	Va.
Massachusetts	Mass.	Washington	Wash.
Michigan	Mich.	West Virginia	W. Va.
Minnesota	Minn.	Wisconsin	Wis.
Mississippi	Miss.	Wyoming	Wyo.
Missouri	Mo.		

NOTE.—The United States Postal Guide does not authorize any abbreviations for the following names:

Alaska	Hawaii	Iowa	Ohio	Samoa
Guam	Idaho	Maine	Oregon	Utah

NOTE 2.—Usually write in full the name of a state when it is used within a sentence; as, The capital of *Minnesota* is St. Paul.

ABBREVIATIONS AND SIGNS RELATING TO BUSINESS

According to value.....Ad v., or ad val.
Account.....a/c, acc., or acct.
Account current.....acct. cur.
Account sales...a/s, or acct. sales
Additional.....add.
Advertisement.....ad., or advt.
Against.....vs.
Agent.....agt.
All correct.....O. K.
Amount.....amt.
And.....&
And others.....etc., or et al.
And so forth.....etc., or &c.
Assistant.....Asst.
Assorted.....ass'd, or as'd
At sight.....a/s
Average.....av.
Bag; Bags.....bg.
Balance.....bal.
Bale; Bales.....bl.
Bank; Book.....bk.
Bank book; Bill book.....B. B.
Barrel; Barrels.....bbl.
Basket.....bkt.
Bill of exchange....B/E, or b. e.
Bill of lading.....B/L, or b. l.
Bills payable.....B. P., or b. p.
Bills receivable..B. Rec., or b. rec.
Black.....blk.
Blueprints.....B. P.
Bond.....bd.
Bottle; Bottles.....btl.
Bought.....bot.
Box; Boxes.....bx.
Brought.....bro't
Bundle.....bdl.
Bushel; Bushels.....bu., or bush.
By.....per
By the year.....per an.
By way of.....via
Cartage.....ctg.
Cash book.....C. B.
Cash on delivery; Collect on delivery.....C. O. D.
Cashier.....cash.
Casks.....cks.
Cent.....c., ¢, or ct.
Cents, cts., or (.); as, 12 cts., or .12
Charges.....chgs.
Chief accountant.....C. A.
Chests.....chts.
Collateral.....collat.
Collection.....col.
Collector.....coll.
Commission; Committee; Commerce.....Com.
Company; County.....Co.
Commission sales books...C. S. B.
Consigned.....cons'd
Consignment.....cons't
Correspondent.....corresp.
Credit; Creditor.....Cr.
Day book.....D. B.
Debtor; Doctor.....Dr.
Department.....Dept.
Deposit.....dep.
Discount.....dis., or disct.
Ditto (the same).....("), or do.
Dividend; Division.....div.
Double extra.....XX
Dozen.....doz.
Draft; Defendant.....dft.
Drayage.....Dray.
Each.....ea.
Exchange; Exchequer.....Exch.
Expense; Express; Export; Exporter.....Ex., or Exp.
Extra.....Ext.
Firkin.....fir.
First class.....A1
Foot; Feet.....ft.
For example.....e. g.
Forward.....fo'd
Free on board..f. o. b., or F. O. B.
Freight.....Fgt., or Fr't

ABBREVIATIONS AND SIGNS RELATING TO BUSINESS

(Continued)

From ..... fr.
Gallon; Gallons ..... gal.
Gentlemen (Messieurs) .. Messrs.
Grains; Gross ..... gr.
Guarantee ..... guar.
Handkerchief ..... hdkf.
Half chests ..... hf. chts.
Hogshead ..... hhd.
Hundred ..... hund.
Hundredweight ..... cwt.
I owe you ..... I. O. U.
Inch; Inches ..... in.
Inclosed; Inclosure ..... incl.
Incorporated ..... incor.
Insurance ..... ins.
Interest ..... int.
Inventory ..... invt.
Invoice ..... Inv.
Invoice book ..... I. B.
Journal ..... Jour.
Journal day book..... J. D. B.
Journal folio ..... J. F.
Junior ..... Jr.
Keg ..... kg.
Kilogram ..... Kilo., or Kg.
Last month ..... ult.
Line ..... l.
Lines ..... ll.
Manifest ..... Mfst.
Manufactured ..... Mfd.
Manufacturers ..... Mfrs.
Manufacturing ..... Mfg.
Memorandum ..... Mem.
Memorandum book ..... Mem. B.
Merchandise ..... Mdse.
Mister ..... Mr.
Missis; Mistress ..... Mrs.
Mortgage ..... Mtg.
Namely ..... viz.
Next month ..... prox.
Notary Public ..... N. P.
Number ..... No.
Numbers ..... Nos.
Order Book ..... O. B.
Ounce; Ounces ..... oz.
Package ..... pkg.
Page; Pint ..... p.
Pages ..... pp.
Paid ..... Pd.
Pay on Delivery ..... P. O. D.
Payment ..... Payt.
Peck; Pecks ..... pk.
Pennyweight ..... pwt.
Piece ..... pc., or pce.
Pieces ..... ps., or pcs.
Postscript ..... P. S.
Pound; Pounds ..... lb.
Premium ..... Prem.
Profit and Loss ..... P. & L.
Proprietor ..... Prop'r
Public; Publisher ..... Pub.
Quart; Quarts; Quantity..... qt.
Quarter; Quire ..... qr.
Railroad ..... R. R.
Railway ..... Ry.
Received ..... Recd.
Returned ..... retd.
Street; Sight ..... St.
Sales Book ..... S. B.
See (vide) ..... v.
Seller's Option ..... S. O., or s. o.
Shipment ..... Shipt.
Sight Draft ..... St. Dft.
Sundries ..... Sund.
Take Notice ..... N. B.
That is ..... i. e.
This month ..... inst.
Time Book ..... T. B.
Treasurer ..... Treas.
Vessel ..... Ves.
Waybill ..... W. B.
Weight ..... wt.
Yard; Yards ..... yd.

SIGNS AND CHARACTERS USED IN BUSINESS

At .....@
Account .....a/c
Addition (plus) .....+
Bill of lading .....B/L, or b. l.
Bill rendered .....B/R
Bill of sale .....B/S
Cent; Cents .....¢
Care of .....%
Check-mark .....√
Days after date .....D/D
Days after sight .....D/S
Degrees .....°
Ditto (same as above)...do., or "
Division (divided by) .....÷
Dollars .....$
Equals .....=
Feet; Minutes .....'; as, 8'
Inches; Seconds ....."; as, 8"
Joint account .....J/A
Letter of credit .....L/C
Multiplication (by) .....×
Number (before a figure).....
.....#; as, #5
One and one-fourth.....1^1
One and one-half .....1^2
One and three-fourths .....1^3
One thousand .....M
Per cent. .....%
Pounds (after a figure).#; as, 5#
Subtraction (minus).....−
First 1st
Second 2d
Third 3d
Fourth 4th

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO CIVIL AND LEGAL AFFAIRS

Administrator .....admr.
Administratrix .....admx.
Advocate .....Adv.
Against .....v., or vs.
Alderman .....Ald.
And others .....etc., or et al.
Attorney .....Atty.
Civil .....Civ.
Civil Service .....C. S.
Clerk .....clk.
Commissioner ....Com., or Comr.
Congress .....Cong.
Congressional Record .Cong. Rec.
Corresponding Secretary.Cor. Sec.
Court House; Custom House.C. H.
Defendant .....deft., or def.
Democrat; Democratic .....Dem.
Department; Deponent .....
.....Dept., or Dep.
Deputy .....Dep.
Esquire .....Esq.
Executive Committee..Exec. Com.
Executor .....Exr.
Executrix .....Exrx.
Financial Secretary .....Fin. Sec.
Governor .....Gov.
House of Representatives...H. R.
Incorporated .....incor.
Internal Revenue .....Int. Rev.
Justice of the Peace.....J. P.
Legal .....Leg.
Legislation; Legislature .....
.....Leg., or Legis.
Member of Congress.....M. C.
Notary Public .....N. P.
Plaintiff .....plf., or plff.
Post Office .....P. O.
Post Office Order .....P. O. O.
Postal Note .....P. N.
Postmaster .....P. M.
Recording Secretary.....Rec. Sec.
Register; Registrar .....Reg.
Republican; Report; Representative .....Rep.
Senate; Senator .....Sen.
Solicitor .....Sol.
Superintendent .....Supt.
United States Senate.....U. S. S.

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO TIME

Afternoon ..... P. M.	Monday ..... Mon.
April ..... Apr.	Month ..... mo.
August ..... Aug.	Months ..... mos.
Before Christ ..... B. C.	Next month ..... prox.
Century ..... Cen.	Noon ..... M.
Christmas ..... Xmas	November ..... Nov.
Day; Days ..... d., or da.	October ..... Oct.
December ..... Dec.	Saturday ..... Sat.
February ..... Feb.	Second ..... sec.
Forenoon ..... A. M.	September ..... Sept.
Friday ..... Fri.	Sunday ..... Sun.
Hour ..... h., or hr.	This month ..... inst.
Hours ..... hrs.	Thursday ..... Thurs.
In the year of our Lord..... A. D.	Tuesday ..... Tues.
January ..... Jan.	Wednesday ..... Wed.
Last month ..... ult.	Year ..... yr.
Minute ..... min.	Years ..... yrs.

MISCELLANEOUS ABBREVIATIONS

And ..... &	Example ..... Ex.
And Company ..... ℳ	Fahrenheit ..... F., or Fahr.
And so forth ..... etc., or &c.	Figure ..... fig.
Anonymous ..... Anon.	For example ..... e. g.
Answer ..... A., Ans., or ans.	For the time (pro tempore)....
Answer, if you please.. R. S. V. P.	..... pro tem.
Appendix ..... app.	Introduction ..... Intro.
Approximate ..... Approx.	Manuscript ..... MS.
Architect; Architecture .... Arch.	Manuscripts ..... MSS.
Article ..... Art.	Namely ..... viz.
Boards ..... bds.	National ..... Nat.
Book ..... bk.	North ..... N.
Brother ..... Bro.	Note Well; Take Notice.... N. B.
Brothers ..... Bros.	Page ..... p.
Building ..... bldg.	Pages ..... pp.
Capital letter ..... cap.	Paragraph ..... ¶
Central; Centigrade ..... Cent.	Query ..... qy.
Chapter ..... ch. or chap.	South ..... S.
Compare ..... cf.	That is ..... i. e.
Degree ..... Deg.	Transpose ..... tr.
East ..... E.	Verse ..... v., or ver.
Edition ..... ed.	Volume ..... vol.
Engineer; Engineering ..... eng.	West ..... W.

NOTE.—Additional abbreviations and signs may be found in the extended lists given in the Winston Simplified Dictionary, pages 803 to 816.

11. Directions.—Copy the abbreviations in Exercise III. Then after each abbreviation give its meaning.

EXAMPLES.—1. viz., namely.
2. M. C., Member of Congress.

EXERCISE III

1. viz.	6. C. O. D.	11. via
2. M. C.	7. Mfg.	12. Dept.
3. P. O.	8. Mass.	13. Mdse.
4. Treas.	9. etc.	14. retd.
5. Dr.	10. D. C.	15. Rec. Sec.

---

12. Directions.—Write the words given in Exercise IV. Then after each word write its correct abbreviation.

EXAMPLE.—1. January, Jan.

EXERCISE IV

1. January	5. Gentlemen	9. West Virginia
2. Administrator	6. New Hampshire	10. pound
3. Esquire	7. Bill of lading	11. county
4. That is	8. America	12. Friday

BUSINESS LETTER CONTAINING ABBREVIATIONS

13. Note the punctuation, the capitalization, the arrangement, and the use of abbreviations in the letter ordering goods.

230 Huron St.,
Bay City, Mich.,
Feb. 7, 1920.

Messrs. Keuffel and Esser,
317 Fifth Ave.,
New York, N. Y.

Gentlemen:

Please ship by American Express, C. O. D., the following:

12 quires Universal Paper, 27″×40″, at $4.25 per quire
3 " Paragon " 22″×30″, at $3.50 " "

5 doz. Patent Office Bristol Board, No. 21, 15"×20", at .90 per doz.
1 roll No. 150 Tracing Cloth, 36 in., at $9.25.
Kindly credit me with the usual discount.

Yours truly,

J. C. Saunders.

SUPPLYING MARKS OF PUNCTUATION AND ABBREVIATIONS IN BUSINESS LETTERS

14. Directions.—The letter in Exercise V contains a number of words that are frequently abbreviated in business letters. Rewrite this letter, using the proper abbreviation for each word printed in Italic. Supply all necessary marks of punctuation.

EXERCISE V

520 Penn *Avenue*
Scranton *Pennsylvania*
April 19 1920

Messieurs Reed Brown and *Company*
Forty-three Cortlandt *Street*
New York City

Gentlemen

In reply to your letter of March thirteenth enclosing quotations I sent you an order for canned goods on the twelfth of this month It has not been acknowledged and the goods have not arrived Knowing your customary promptness I think my order has probably been mislaid in your heavy mail I enclose a duplicate order to be used if the former one is lost

Please ship *by way of* the Lackawanna *Railroad* not later than the third of next month as I am now running close on several of these lines

Send *invoice* and *bill of lading* on day of shipment and name best discount for cash in ten days

Kindly acknowledge receipt of this order by return mail

Yours very truly
John Butler Williams Secretary
Mears and Williams

---

15. Directions.—Rewrite the letter in Exercise VI. Use abbreviated forms for all words printed in Italic and supply all necessary marks of punctuation.

EXERCISE VI

735 Main *Street*
Denver *Colorado*
January 4 1920

Mister D Atherton
Secretary Board of Trade
Scranton *Pennsylvania*

Dear Sir

This will introduce to you the bearer *Mister* James W Orton of Denver *Colorado* who is desirous of enlisting capital for a safe and profitable manufacturing enterprise in his city

Will you kindly take the matter up with him and show him every courtesy possible You will find him a keen honest business man perfectly reliable in every way a man whom you can safely commend to the good will of your leading business men

Yours respectfully
James R Walters

EXERCISE VII

16. Directions.—Write a letter to your grocer in which you order a supply of groceries. Supply your address, the date of writing the letter, and the name and address of your grocer. Order at least six different articles, mentioning the amount desired, and using abbreviations wherever they would be correct.

A DICTIONARY EXERCISE

17. Directions.—The words in Exercise VIII are in common use, but they are frequently mispronounced or misspelled. Write each of these words. Then from your dictionary, determine the correct pronunciation and indicate this pronunciation as shown in the dictionary. After each word, write one meaning given in the dictionary and construct a sentence in which the word is used according to the meaning you give.

EXAMPLE.—

1. aeroplane (ā′ ĕr ŏ plān″). An aircraft or flying machine, kept aloft by the reaction of motor-propelled planes upon the air.

We decided to take a trip in the aeroplane.

EXERCISE VIII

1. aeroplane
2. architect
3. library
4. secretary
5. umbrella
6. municipal
7. mischievous
8. patriotism
9. financier
10. government
11. mercantile
12. automobile

MISCELLANEOUS ERRORS

Don't Say	*Do Say*
How do you size up that situation?	What do you think of that situation?
I can't seem able to learn this lesson.	I seem unable to learn this lesson.
It is going on twelve o'clock.	It is almost twelve o'clock.
You should of read the letter.	You should have read the letter.
Smell of this flower.	Smell this flower.
They will meet us at about eight o'clock.	They will meet us at eight o'clock, *or* They will meet us about eight o'clock.
I am off my feed.	I have no appetite.
It is no use to ask him.	It is of no use to ask him.
What is he going for?	Why is he going?
We rode this far yesterday.	We rode as far as this yesterday.
Father is some better.	Father is somewhat better.
The paper contained a good write-up on the reception.	The paper contained a good account of the reception.
Do you know that party?	Do you know that man?
We stayed at their house the balance of the week.	We stayed at their house the rest of the week.
Did you get a raise in pay?	Did you get an increase in pay?
I am sure it was her.	I am sure it was she.
Do you carry meats?	Do you sell meats?
He said to go at once.	He said that I should go at once.
We lit the gas in our room.	We lighted the gas in our room.
Have you drank your coffee?	Have you drunk your coffee?
The boy don't like his work.	The boy doesn't like his work.
I drawed the water for the cows.	I drew the water for the cows.
You hadn't ought to have gone.	You ought not to have gone.
She boasted about her learning.	She boasted of her learning.
The banquet was followed with a dance.	The banquet was followed by a dance.
He is angry at me.	He is angry with me.
My foot is swelled.	My foot is swollen.
She has a bad cold.	She has a severe cold.
She makes lots of errors.	She makes a great many errors.

CORRECTING ERRORS IN SENTENCES

18. Directions.—The sentences in Exercise IX contain some incorrect expressions. Determine what is wrong in each sentence and then write each sentence correctly.

EXERCISE IX

1. Mary don't go to school regularly.
2. This book is some better than the one you have.
3. They asked Mabel to be chairlady.
4. Harry made me mad when he talked so foolishly.
5. I think I shall buy this here dress.
6. We are going to Washington to make her a visit.
7. Father thinks he will be home the latter end of the month.
8. The reporter said he would give us a good write-up on the rally.
9. They hadn't ought to have written such nonsense.
10. As soon as the girl lit the gas, we could see she had been crying.
11. I shall wire that I cannot go until tomorrow.
12. Elizabeth learned me how to skate.
13. Can't you stay with me for the balance of the week?
14. A lot of men tried to keep from joining the army.
15. The baby has drank all its milk.

SPELLING

LIST OF WORDS

machine	matches	milked	monkey
machinery	material	mirror	moonlight
magazine	major	mischief	mopped
manage	meadow	mischievous	mosquito
manners	measles	mistake	mother
manufacture	measure	mitten	motion
maple	medicine	mocked	motor
marble	melon	modern	movement
marched	mercy	moisture	mucilage
market	merry	molasses	muddy
marriage	message	moment	multiply
married	middle	Monday	mustard

nailed
narrow
nasty
nation
national
naughty
navy
nearly
necessary
necklace

needle
neglect
negro
negroes
neigh
neighbor
neither
nephew
nervous
neuralgia

never
newspaper
nickel
nieces
nineteen
noble
nobody
noise
noisy
normal

nostril
notches
nothing
notice
notion
nourishment
nozzle
nuisance
number
nurse

oatmeal
obedient
observed
obtained
occasionally
o'clock
occupy
occurred
odor

offend
offense
offered
office
oiled
oiling
omitted
opened
opinion

opportunity
opposite
orange
orchard
order
organ
organized
orphan
other

ought
ourselves
outrage
outside
oven
overalls
overcoat
overshoes
oxygen

package
paint
pancake
pansy
pantry
papa
paper
parade
parasol
parcel

parlor
party
passed
passenger
pasture
patch
patriot
pattern
pavement
peanut

peaches
peddler
peeled
pencil
people
pepper
perhaps
period
petting
photograph

piano
picked
picture
pickles
picnic
pieces
pigeon
pinched
pitcher
planter

TRANSPORTATION

cargoes
weight
route
leakage
shipping
tonnage
express
traffic
schedule
ticket
sleeper

license
transferred
vice versa
instalment
amount
title
shipper
passenger
traveler
porter
station

consignee
remittance
transmitted
leasable
dutiable
breakage
shipment
Pullman
block-signal
interurban
commuter

destination
exorbitant
interstate
consignment
valuation
commercial
revenue
train-master
air-brake
locomotive
terminal

WORDS PERTAINING TO NAVIGATION

buoyancy	imperiled	source	regatta
passage	aqueduct	propel	cruiser
rudder	exertion	traveling	oceanic
canal	obstacles	voyage	water course
water	atmosphere	helmsman	harbor
pilot	propeller	seafaring	maritime
islander	commodore	nautical	navigation

SYNONYMS

mirth	chagrin	banquet	adage
gaiety	vexation	festival	proverb
jollity	humiliation	carousal	maxim
soothe	talkative	eminent	waver
alleviate	loquacious	renowned	vacillate
mitigate	garrulous	notorious	fluctuate
gratitude	friendly	compassion	seclusion
thankfulness	cordial	sympathy	privacy
courtesy	rivalry	modesty	resentment
politeness	competition	diffidence	animosity
obnoxious	downcast	grateful	decide
odious	dejected	thankful	determine

USING WORDS IN SENTENCES

19. Directions.—Note carefully each word in Exercise X, making certain you know its spelling, pronunciation, and meaning. Then construct a sentence for each word, using each one correctly.

EXERCISE X

1. machinery	6. passage	11. harbor
2. organized	7. humiliation	12. destination
3. passenger	8. vexation	13. rudder
4. muddy	9. grateful	14. decide
5. cucumber	10. thankful	15. determine

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 9)

CAPITAL LETTERS

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS

1. In the preceding lesson, the importance of correct punctuation has been explained and the principal rules governing the punctuation of written matter have been given. But punctuation is not the only device that aids the eye. Correct capitalization is of material aid in enabling the reader to grasp the thought readily. The rules given here will prove valuable if they are applied properly.

Rule I.—*Begin with a capital letter the first word of every sentence.*

EXAMPLES.—

We stop work at five o'clock.
The men tried to repair the machinery.

Rule II.—*Begin with a capital letter the first word of every complete line of poetry.*

EXAMPLE.—

Oh, all day long they flood with song
The forest shades, the fields of light;
Heaven's heart is stilled and strangely thrilled
By ecstasies of lyric might.

Rule III.—*Begin with a capital letter the first word of a sentence copied or quoted exactly from another writer or speaker.*

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

EXAMPLES.—

He cried, "*The* house is afire!" and ran for water.
Myra asked, "*Will* you go?"
The letter read, "*We* shall be with you to-morrow."

Rule IV.—*The first word in the salutation and in the conclusion of a letter should begin with a capital letter.*

EXAMPLES.—

Dear Sir	*Yours* very truly
My dear Sir	*Respectfully* yours
Dear friend Charles	*Your* sincere friend
Our dearest Mother	*Your* loving daughter

Rule V.—*Begin with a capital letter the first word that follows such expressions as* It is resolved, Be it enacted, etc.

EXAMPLES.—

Be it resolved, *That* this society, etc.
It is herewith enacted, *That* Art. VII, Sec. 2, etc.

Rule VI.—*Begin the first word of each subparagraph with a capital letter.*

EXAMPLES.—

The topics of his discourse were the following:

Influence of Example,
Force of Habit,
Noble Thoughts.

Sentences are classified according to their form; as,

(1) Simple,
(2) Compound,
(3) Complex.

Rule VII.—*Begin with capital letters the names of persons, firms, companies, etc.*

EXAMPLES.—

Philip	Adams & Company
Mabel Musgrave	The Globe Store
Mrs. A. R. Black	Brown Brothers

Rule VIII.—*The words* mother, uncle, sister, etc., *when used in direct address, begin with capital letters.*

EXAMPLES.—

Did you call me, *Mother?*
When will you return, *Uncle?*
Hasten, *Sister,* it is time to go to school.

When such terms denote mere relationship, they should usually begin with small letters, as in *We saw our uncle yesterday; My mother and my sister are coming here today.*

When the word denoting relationship is used in place of the name, this word should be capitalized; as, *I told Mother that I would go.*

Rule IX.—*Begin with a capital letter the names of streets, boulevards, parks, buildings, cities, rivers, states, etc.*

EXAMPLES.—

West Madison Ave.	Cincinnati
Thirty-first Street	Hartford
Riverview Boulevard	Red River of the North
Fairmount Park	Tennessee
Nay Aug Park	Michigan
The White House	Philippine Islands
Congressional Library	Rocky Mountains

Usage differs considerably concerning the capitalization of such geographical terms as *river, lake, sea,* etc., but a little consideration will show which is the better—a capital letter or a small letter. Capitalize the geographical name when it is used specifically; use a small letter when the geographical term is used generally.

EXAMPLES.—

The river was called the Snake River.
He lived in Broome County.
He lived in the county of Broome.

Geographical Names Used Specifically (Both names are necessary to form the proper name.)	*Geographical Names Used Generally*
Red River	the Delaware river
Tioga County	the eastern coast of Maine
Long Island Sound	the valley of the Mississippi
The Black Sea	the Caspian sea
Lake Erie	the city of Buffalo
The Great Lakes	the mountains of Switzerland
The Atlantic Coast	the rivers of France

When the points of the compass denote definite parts of a country, they should be capitalized; when they denote direction only, they should not be capitalized.

We decided to go to the *South* for the winter.
The *West* is loved by those who live there.
This river flows due *south*.
Let us go farther *west*.

Rule X.—*Begin with a capital letter a word derived from a proper name.*

By a proper name is meant a name given to one particular person, place, or thing in order to distinguish that person, place, or thing from others of the same kind. *China, Brazil, Scranton, Harry, Mary Brown,* are proper names.

Examples of words derived from proper names.—

Chinese	French
Brazilian	American
Welsh	Spanish
Grecian	Portuguese
Byzantine	Norwegian

Rule XI.—*The words* Bible *and* Scripture, *and the names of books or divisions of the Bible, and all names applied to the Deity should begin with a capital letter.*

Examples.—

Bible	God
Book of Job	Christ
Sermon on the Mount	Son of Man
Gospel of St. John	Holy Spirit
The Ten Commandments	Messiah
The Beatitudes	the Light of the World

Rule XII.—*Begin with capital letters the names of animals and things when they are made to speak or act as persons.* Such names are said to be *personified.*

Examples.—

"Brown *Night* retires; young *Day* comes in apace."
"When *Youth* and *Pleasure* meet."
Mr. *Parrot* sarcastically said: "It is easy enough for you, Mr. *Hand,* to show the hour of the day."

Rule XIII.—*Usually begin with capital letters the names of religious denominations; religious, social, and industrial organizations; nationalities; political parties; and names of important events or documents.*

EXAMPLES.—

Religious Denominations: Methodists; Mormons; Baptists
Organizations: Masons; Odd Fellows; Young Men's Christian Association; Epworth League; Business Men's Club
Nationalities: English; French; American
Political Parties: Democrats; Republicans
Important Events: The Revolution; the Great World War; the Battle of Bunker Hill
Important Documents: The Declaration of Independence; the Constitution of the United States

Rule XIV.—*Titles of office or respect, when they precede the name or refer to particular persons, should begin with capital letters.*

EXAMPLES.—

the *President* of the United States	*Mayor* Ellis
His *Excellency,* the Governor	*Professor* Barrett
Congressman Harris	*Senator* Beveridge
Colonel Roosevelt	*Miss* Clark

When a title of this kind is used merely to designate a class, and not in connection with a name, it is not usually capitalized.

EXAMPLES.—

The *foreman* told us to do the work carefully.
There were several *congressmen* in the hall.
He referred frequently to the *presidents* of the country.
Nominations are now in order for *vice-president.*

Rule XV.—*Begin the names of the days of the week, of the months of the year, and of the holidays with capital letters.*

EXAMPLES.—

We expect to go next *Sunday.*
Last *July* was a rainy month.
We honor our hero dead on *Memorial Day.*

The names of the seasons are generally written with small letters.

EXAMPLES.—

This *winter* has been a long, dreary one.
He will go to San Francisco during the *summer.*

Rule XVI.—*The abbreviations of proper names and of titles should always be written with capitals.*

EXAMPLES.—

Mass.	Dec.	Chas.
N. Y.	Supt.	Sept.
Mr.	P. M.	D. D.

Rule XVII.—*Begin with capital letters the names of articles of goods listed in an invoice or itemized statement.*

EXAMPLES.—

3 lb. Tea,	@ .50	$1.50
2 kg. Nails,	" 1.50	3.00
12 qt. Cherries,	" .10	1.20
4 doz. Eggs,	" .60	2.40

Rule XVIII.—*Begin with capital letters the important words in the title or heading of a book, chapter, essay, section, etc.*

EXAMPLES.—

Pope's "Essay on Man."
White's "Words and Their Uses."
Evangeline
Industry and Trade

Rule XIX.—*Usually begin with capital letters words that are defined and other words to which special attention is called.*

EXAMPLES.—

The Comma shows the shortest pause.
The Tariff Bill was considered.
The Memorial-Day Exercises were very instructive.
The State Superintendent of Public Instruction addressed us wisely and wittily on Spelling.

Rule XX.—*Write I and O in capital letters when they are used as words.*

EXAMPLES.—

She cried, "O John, I have cut my finger."
The star-spangled banner, O long may it wave!
She cannot say that I did it.

INDICATING THE RULES FOR CAPITAL LETTERS

2. Directions.—Copy the examples in Exercise I and write under each capital letter the number of the rule which gives the reason for its use in that place.

EXAMPLE.—

As Mayor Smith was entering the Municipal Building, we asked:
I XIV VII IX IX
"Has your Honor signed the Paving Ordinance?"
III XIV XIX XIX

NOTE.—You may indicate the Rules by Arabic figures; as, 1, 14, 7, 9, etc.

EXERCISE I

1. The frightened engineer rushed out exclaiming, "The steam pipe has burst!"

2. He arose and said: "Mr. Chairman, I move the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we tender our sincere thanks to Miss Amelia Jones for her playing and to the Misses Burns for their singing.

Resolved, That we thank the Trustees of the Snyder County Trust Co. for the use of this pleasant room."

3. Mrs. Wm. Sands stopped at the Beehive Book Store and bought an American Revised Bible, a Book of Psalms, a copy of Scott's "Marmion," and Bulwer Lytton's "The Coming Race."

4. This morning's mail brought us the following itemized statement:

The Smith-Laughlin Hardware Company
Machinery, Hardware, Supplies
Stillwater, Ohio

Sold to

Walter S. Johnson Company

April 1, 1920

1920			
Mar. 5	12 sq. Corrugated V Roofing,	@ 2.10	$ 25.20
	40 " Steel Brick Siding,	" 2.65	106.00
	12 " V Sticks,	" .10	1.20
	Nails for 52 sq.,	" .05	2.60
	½ bbl. (25 gal.) Ready-Mixed Paint	" .37	9.25
" 16	4 Jenkins' Globe Valves, 1¼ in.,	" 1.45	5.80
	2 " " " 1½ in.,	" 1.95	3.90
	4 " Angle " 1½ in.,	" 1.95	7.80
	6 Brass Safety " 2 in.,	" 3.60	21.60
			$183.35

5. The Japanese and Chinese nations in the Far East are rapidly adopting the more advanced manners and methods of the West.

6. Mohammedans and Hindoos are very religious, but they are not Christians.

7. Mr. Abbott, the treasurer, said: "Mr. President, I move it be now resolved by this Company:

First, That we herewith accept the order from the Ridgeway Railway Co., of Salem, W. Va., for six locomotives and six water tanks.

Second, That we herewith authorize our Purchasing Agent, C. A. Prescott, to buy immediately, at lowest market prices, all necessary materials.

Third, That we run two eight-hour shifts, beginning with next Monday, May 2, at 6 A. M., until this contract is completed."

8. Until within a few years, any American, Englishman, or other foreigner, who attempted to enter Thibetan territory was killed; and even now the Scriptures may not be taught there.

9. The Lancers hold their meetings in Baldwin's Hall, Market Square, Tuesday night; the Royal Arcanum, Wednesday night; and the American Mechanics, Saturday night.

10. General Manager R. C. Stevens discharged Superintendent Drinker and promoted Foreman Drydon.

11. Do you recall, Herbert, that snow fell on St. Patrick's Day and on Thanksgiving Day of the year 1907?

12. Theodore exclaimed: "O Father! I am so sorry that I disobeyed you on Wednesday."

13. The Whistles call pleasantly: "Come to work"; the busy Machinery hums: "Don't worry"; the industrious mechanic says: "My heart is full of joy"; and the ringing Bells join the chorus with: "Come to worship."

14. What we ought to do this minute,
"'Twill be better done," he'll cry,
"If to-morrow you begin it.
Put it off," says By-and-By.
We shall reach what we endeavor,
If on Now we more rely;
But unto the hut of Never,
Leads the pilot By-and-By.

15. I Can, he is a fiery youth,
And Will, a brother twin;
And, arm in arm, in love and truth,
They'll either Die or Win.
Oh, banish from you old I Can't!
Thus show yourself a man;
Then nothing will your purpose daunt,
Led by the brave I Can.

SUPPLYING CAPITAL LETTERS

3. Directions.—Copy the examples in Exercise II, supply capital letters where they are needed, and under each capital letter write the number of the rule for its use.

EXAMPLE.—

1. The machinist said, "Please give me an order for one seven-
I III
eighths-inch drill and one Brown & Sharpe chuck."
VII VII

EXERCISE II

1. the machinist said, "please give me an order for one seven-eighths-inch drill and one brown & sharpe chuck."

2. the foreman posted notices in the machine shop, boiler room, blacksmith shop, and foundry which read:

hereafter all employees must get an order from the office of superintendent reynolds before they can receive any tools from the tool room.

orion iron works,
j. h. van buskirk,
apr. 1, 1920. manager.

3. the president, h. m. bush, called together the members of plumbers' labor union, council no. 12, and they, after a lengthy discussion, took this action:

"resolved, that we do not approve of the grounds for this strike and decline to support it."

be it further resolved that we condemn all acts of lawlessness and try to prevent them.

4. as an illustration of personification, which supposes animals and inanimate things to act and speak as persons, he read from the book, "temple bar," the following lines:

"Love, hope, and patience charm us on our way,
love, hope, and patience watch us day by day."

5. his interesting letter began:

"324 euclid ave.,
bradley beach, n. j.,
july 7, 1919.

my dear sister,

it is now three days since i arrived here. O ida! how i wish you were with me to enjoy the beautiful sights on the beach and in the museum, and especially to hear old ocean's roaring! i wonder his throat does not give out!" *

and the letter ended:

"that you may soon come and enjoy it all with me is the sincere wish of,

your loving brother,
j. harold walters.

6. j. b. hendershott, president of the filbert tool works, gave to each of the twenty employees a free ticket to concert hall for the boston symphony club concert, next tuesday night, july 12.

7. the employees in our shop include three welshmen, one spaniard, five norwegians, two danes, and four italians.

8. the knocker said to the bell, "you're cracked," "well, if i am," retorted the bell, "it's all your fault; moreover, nobody would know it if you did not proclaim it."

9. say, mother, please send the twins. mildred and margaret, to jones' department store with this order:

the jones department store:
kindly deliver to us, promptly,

3 lb. california prunes
4 cans tomatoes
2 cans strawberry beets
10 lb. granulated sugar
1½ lb. cheese
1 doz. florida oranges
3 doz. fresh eggs
1 copy "burns' poems"
1 copy scott's "ivanhoe"
1 copy "swiss family robinson"

10. "lives of great men all remind us
we can make our lives sublime,
and, departing, leave behind us
footprints on the sands of time."

APPLYING THE CAPITAL-LETTER RULES IN LETTER WRITING

4. Directions.—Copy the letter in Exercise III and supply capital letters where they are required. You need not indicate the rules for these capital letters.

EXERCISE III

149 state st.,
milton, pa.,
may 2, 1920.

mr. walter folsom,
mausdale,
pa.

my dear friend,

for two weeks i have been in the employ of the milton machine co., on water street. i enjoy working for our superintendent, mr. benjamin apple, and my foreman, mr. frank acker. they are very efficient mechanics. they appreciate good work and are willing to express their approval of it.

the employees, of whom there are about ninety, mostly americans, seem to be an upright class of mechanics. they are above the average shopmen in morality and intelligence. i have not heard the name of our creator used profanely since i came here.

these shops have run continuously ever since mr. apple became general superintendent over a year ago. they have just received several more orders, which include one from the sullivan lumber co., of bernice, for a saw mill complete and ten lumber trucks. another order, for fifty dump cars, comes from the durham coal co., to be shipped to hoytville, tioga co., pa., via the erie r. r.

the plant is well equipped with power and machinery and is fitted for turning out a great variety of work in wood, iron, and brass. we have a one-hundred-fifty horse-power water-tube keeler boiler, a seventy-five horse-power corliss engine, a large back-geared iron lathe, one wood-turning lathe, two hamilton drill presses, one four-sided planer, a surfacer, and many other machines.

i learn that the firm is very reliable. they pay every other saturday night for all work done to the previous saturday night.

if i continue to like the work and conditions as well as at present, i expect to move my family here early next october. some pleasant homes on state street and on woodbine avenue may be rented for twenty to thirty dollars per month. this includes electric light, steam heat from a mill nearby, and water.

milton has a splendid market on tuesday, thursday, and saturday mornings of each week. the cost of living and the price of clothing i have found, by special inquiry, to be quite reasonable.

i hope this will find you and your family well. kindly remember me to them and to all inquiring friends. let me hear from you soon. would you like to move to milton? shall i try to find a position for you?

your sincere friend,

w. g. murdock.

THE VOCABULARY

5. Many persons suffer continually because of the poverty of their language. It is a well-established fact that thoughts and ideas cannot be communicated accurately and effectively unless the person expressing them has an abundant word supply at his command. A scant and insufficient word supply not only hampers expression but thwarts the formation of new ideas. On the other hand, every new word gained by any person brings with it some idea or phase of life hitherto unknown to that person. It is not strange then that the importance of acquiring new words is emphasized. It is the duty of every one to be calling new words to his service and to develop the habit of using words with discrimination.

METHODS OF INCREASING THE VOCABULARY

6. There are a number of devices that may be employed in enlarging one's vocabulary, or word supply. Some of the most important are emphasized in the earlier of the preceding lessons. Others are mentioned here.

7. First of all, be convinced that an adequate word supply is worth while and then be willing to work for it. Every word gained gives you just so much more power. Mistakes in speech are costly for they cause delays and misunderstandings. Break yourself of the habit of careless expression. Take pride in using words properly, and soon you will see a great improvement in your speech.

8. Reading.—One of the readiest means of acquiring a greater word supply is wide and diligent reading. Books, magazines, and newspapers furnish a fine opportunity for adding to one's vocabulary. Form the habit of reading some good book or newspaper for a while each day. Learn to appreciate the best authors. Keep in touch with current events, for accounts of them will include words in current speech. Observe the words that are new to you, look them up, and make a record of them. Then use them until they come to you easily and naturally.

9. Listening.—Train your ear to note words. Watch for new words in the speech of those with whom you converse and to whom you listen. Your minister, the lecturer whose lecture you enjoyed, the business man with whom you transact business, all are likely to use words you never before heard or in ways unfamiliar to you. Take advantage of every opportunity to listen to able speakers in the pulpit and on the platform, and to converse with well-educated, cultured persons. Observe closely their choice of words and add to your own word supply those which impress you as being used effectively.

10. Use the Dictionary.—As previously suggested, the *dictionary habit* is invaluable to one who desires to use English

correctly and effectively. Acquire this habit. Occasionally lay down the book or the article you are reading and look up in your dictionary the pronunciation and the meaning of some new word. If you hear an expression that sounds new or odd to you, turn to your dictionary. Use this book freely.

ADDING WORDS TO YOUR VOCABULARY

11. Directions.—Exercise IV contains words that you should be able to use readily. Learn to spell these words; then copy each one, indicate its pronunciation as shown in your dictionary, and define the word. Also construct a sentence in which you use the word according to the definition you give for it.

EXERCISE IV

1. obstinate
2. promoter
3. arbitration
4. competitor
5. salary
6. surgery
7. profitable
8. laundry
9. economy
10. competent
11. lubricant
12. patriotic
13. metropolis
14. contestants
15. loyalty

SPELLING

12. Many persons who have an adequate word supply and who talk pleasingly and effectively, find themselves handicapped and embarrassed when they write, simply because they misspell many of the words they use. In fact, most persons of the present generation are poor spellers. Why this is so, is difficult to explain, but this deficiency on the part of many persons seems to be due to the fact that they have not developed the *spelling instinct*—the ability to tell at a glance whether a word is spelled correctly or not. It is not necessary, however, for any person to remain a poor speller. Any one may learn to note words minutely and to form a vivid mental picture of any word. Then the way the word looks can be recalled without difficulty and its correct spelling written without consciously thinking of it.

In preceding lessons your attention is called to words that should be a part of the vocabulary of every one and that are frequently misspelled, mispronounced, or misused. Others are given here. Study them carefully. Do not be content, however, to learn merely their spelling. Know their pronunciation, their meanings, and their use. Make them your own—a real part of your word supply.

WORDS YOU SHOULD KNOW

plaster	poison	practice	prison
platform	police	prairie	prisoner
platter	ponies	praised	promise
players	poorer	prayer	public
pleasant	post office	preached	pudding
please	potato	prepare	pumpkin
pledge	potatoes	president	puncture
plenty	poultice	pretty	puppy
pocket	poured	prettiest	purchase
pocketbook	powder	priest	purpose
quality	quicker	races	rapid
quantity	quickly	radiator	rascal
quarrel	quiet	ragged	rather
quart	quietly	railing	rattle
quarter	quilt	railroad	raveled
quartet	quinine	rained	razor
quarry	quite	raised	reached
queen	quotation	raisins	ready
question	quotient	ranch	reason
receipt	remember	ribbon	rompers
receive	repeat	rifle	rooster
recite	replied	river	roses
refrigerator	report	rivet	rotten
refuse	republic	robbed	rubber
regular	respect	robin	rubbish
related	restaurant	rocked	runaway
remains	revolver	roller	rusty
saddle	saucer	scissors	secret
safety	sausage	scratched	separate
sailed	scared	screamed	sermon
salary	scholar	scrubbed	servant
satisfy	school	second	served

several
shadow
shaved
shawl
shelves
shingles
shiver

shoulder
shoved
shovel
shoveled
shower
shudder
sickness

sidewalk
silent
silver
sister
slammed
slapped
sleeping

sleepy
sleeves
slices
slipper
slippery
sliver
smoking

smother
snapped
sneeze
snowball
snowed
sober
society
soldier
sometime
sorrow
sorry
speckled
spider
splendid
splinter

sponge
spoonful
spotted
sprinkle
squeal
squeezed
stable
stagger
station
starved
stayed
sticky
stingy
stockings
stomach

stories
straighten
stranger
strength
stretched
struggle
student
studies
stumble
stylish
success
sugar
suit case
summer
summon

sunny
sunshine
superintendent
supper
supplies
surprise
surrender
swallow
swearing
sweater
sweeping
sweeter
swimming
switch
swollen

table
tablet
talkative
talked
tangle
tardy
target
tasted
teacher
telegram
telegraph
telephone
temper
tender

terrible
thanksgiving
theater
thimble
thirsty
thistle
thorough
thousand
threaten
throat
thunder
ticket
tickle
tiger

tighter
timber
timid
tobacco
to-day
together
tomatoes
to-morrow
tongue
torture
touched
towel
tower
tracked

trader
travel
traveler
treacherous
treason
tremble
trouble
trousers
trowel
truant
truthful
tumbler
typewriter
tyrant

ugly
umbrella
umpire
unable
uncivilized
uncle
unconscious

under
understand
understood
underwear
unfortunate
union
unite

university
unless
unscrew
until
upheld
uphold
upon

upper
upset
useful
useless
usual
usually
utter

vacant	vaseline	vessel	visitor
vacation	vases	victim	voice
vaccinated	vault	victory	volcano
valentine	vegetables	view	volcanoes
valley	veil	village	volume
valuable	veins	villain	vomit
value	velvet	vinegar	vote
variety	ventilate	violet	vowel
various	ventilation	violin	voyage
varnish	venture	visit	vulgar
wading	warmed	weapon	wherever
wagon	warrior	weary	whether
waist	washing	weave	whipped
waiting	watched	wedding	whiskers
waked	water	weight	whisper
walked	watermelon	whatever	whistle
walnut	waves	wheat	wicked
wander	wealthy	wheeled	wider
wigwam	wolves	worried	wrist
wilderness	woman	worship	writing
window	women	wrapped	yeast
winter	wonder	wrench	yellow
wiped	wonderful	wrestle	yesterday
wither	woolen	wretch	yield
witness	worry	wrinkle	yourself

TERMS USED IN BUILDING

building	column	balustrade	bungalow
mortar	masonry	elevation	stability
girders	fireproof	vestibule	sanctuary
structure	Gothic	partition	tabernacle
flagstones	residence	cathedral	lavatory
splicing	Egyptian	corridor	colosseum
cement	ornament	veranda	terra-cotta
concrete	diagram	abutments	architecture

PLANTS

boneset	mullein	narcissus	gladiolus
dahlia	burdock	lavender	heliotrope
sorrel	celery	anemone	nasturtium
plantain	sumac	mignonette	rhododendron
chard	alyssum	japonica	pennyroyal
lichen	daffodil	chicory	nectarine
jonquil	muskmelon	rutabaga	hydrangea

NEWSPAPER TERMS

daily	editor	editorial
morning	journalist	leader
proof	contributor	article
semiweekly	reporter	item
weekly	correspondent	local
bimonthly	subscriber	telegrams
monthly	advertiser	notices
exchanges	carrier	gossip
edition	newsboy	financial
proprietor	extra	amusements
publisher	typographical	compositor
printer	linotype	monotype

BUSINESS TERMS

freight	agency	referee	indorsement
ledger	auction	valuation	industrial
leases	breakage	stockholder	competitor
panic	bribery	company	assignment
coupons	dividend	damaged	acceptance
expense	drawer	instalment	auctioneer
rebates	drawee	depositor	equitable
leakage	employee	inventory	bankruptcy
boycott	equipment	organize	injunction
discount	indictment	capitalize	corporation

THE CITY

mayor	hydrant	pavement	metropolis
tenant	police	lamp-post	trolley car
sewer	precinct	traffic	garbage
gutter	hospital	tenement	opera
patrol	saloon	college	neighbors
avenue	theater	library	high school
curb	museum	station	factory

MILITARY TERMS

soldier	corps	platoon	pistol
company	infantry	battalion	carbine
regiment	cavalry	sword	musket
brigade	artillery	saber	rifle
division	orderly	bayonet	cannon

sentry	epaulet	siege	countersign
picket	armistice	sutler	court-martial
uniform	caisson	recruit	ammunition
knapsack	bivouac	aid-de-camp	fortification
canteen	haversack	garrison	intrenchment

RELATING TO TIME

hour	autumn	yearly	eternity
year	winter	annual	antique
week	summer	century	perennial
month	forenoon	fortnight	permanent
fall	afternoon	biennial	habitual
spring	evening	forever	calendar
second	decade	always	almanac
minute	epoch	immortal	perpetual
instant	season	temporary	momentary

WORDS LIABLE TO BE CONFUSED

13. Pronounce aloud each word. Distinguish between the meanings of the words in each group.

conservatory	emerge	planing	admission
observatory	immerge	planning	admittance
bolder	striped	later	pedal
boulder	stripped	latter	peddle
prevision	assay	Francis	wrench
provision	essay	Frances	rinse
device	impassable	instance	salvage
devise	impassible	instant	selvage

SYNONYMS

generous	polite	frugal	fanciful
liberal	refined	thrifty	grotesque
bountiful	cultured	saving	ludicrous
happiness	riches	prodigal	anxiety
felicity	fortune	wasteful	concern
rapture	opulence	extravagant	worry
pretty	merry	scholar	freedom
handsome	jolly	student	liberty
splendid	happy	pupil	license

sterile	forlorn	lofty	discover
barren	lonesome	sublime	invent
absolute	business	catastrophe	break
despotic	occupation	calamity	destroy
arbitrary	profession	disaster	fracture
tyrannical	vocation	misfortune	demolish
ease	console	emblem	teacher
facility	comfort	symbol	educator
readiness	encourage	token	instructor

ANTONYMS

14. Antonyms are words directly opposed to each other in meaning. It is important for every one to be familiar with words of this kind, because a very effective method of defining terms is to tell what they do not denote nor signify. If a person has an understanding of antonyms, he will often be able to describe his ideas by means of contrasting terms or words that are opposite in meaning to those he would naturally select. Look up the antonyms in your dictionary so you may know wherein they differ in meaning. Learn to use them freely.

true	agree	cleanse	near
untrue	differ	pollute	distant
sure	admire	calm	sweet
doubtful	abhor	agitated	sour
new	hoard	gay	alike
old	squander	sad	unlike
open	cause	apart	dry
closed	effect	together	moist
certain	perfect	learned	industry
uncertain	imperfect	ignorant	indolence
correct	positive	frugality	garrulous
defective	hesitating	liberality	reticent
complete	unlike	harmony	acquainted
incomplete	uniform	discord	unacquainted
public	vigilant	absurd	dainty
private	negligent	sensible	clumsy
rare	exonerate	failure	generous
common	condemn	success	parsimonious

obey	honesty	absent	active
disobey	duplicity	present	indolent
aged	guilty	destroy	emigrate
youthful	innocent	construct	immigrate
venerate	interior	stubborn	vacant
dishonor	exterior	yielding	inhabited

SUPPLYING SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

15. Directions.—Mention one synonym and one antonym for each word in Exercise V. Then write ten sentences, each containing two synonymous words or a word and its antonym. Use your dictionary.

EXAMPLES.—

Word	*Synonym*	*Antonym*
safe	trustworthy	perilous

We felt *safe* after we saw our guide, for we knew he would prove *trustworthy*. (Contains two synonymous terms.) *Or,*

You need a *trustworthy* guide, for the trip is a *perilous* one. (Contains antonym.)

EXERCISE V

1. safe
2. merry
3. fertile
4. aged
5. generous
6. vigilant
7. yielding
8. break
9. polite
10. vacant

PRACTICE IN USING WORDS

16. Directions.—Exercise VI contains a brief article on leather. Write this Exercise, punctuating it properly and spelling all words correctly. If possible, have some one dictate the paragraph to you.

Make a list of the italicized words. Then construct a sentence for each word. If you are doubtful concerning the meaning of the word, look it up in your dictionary.

EXERCISE VI

The hides of all sorts of animals are now made into leather. Fur-bearing pelts are tanned without disturbing the hair. Thus are *produced* a great *variety* of leathers: the heavy hide is made into sole leather and into *material* for belting and harness; calfskin finds its

principal use in the uppers of boots and shoes and in bookbinding; sheepskin is *employed* for shoe-linings, whips, aprons, and gloves; goatskins are *adapted* to the *manufacture* of gloves and ladies' shoes; pigskin is used for making traveling bags and saddle parts; dogskin is in great *demand* for gloves, and horsehide for the toughest and roughest hand wear. Porpoise hide will make good and *durable* leather. Though it is now used almost solely for shoestrings, the time will doubtless come when this *resource* will be better *utilized.* In addition to this list of leathers, the kangaroo, alligator, elephant, rhinoceros, walrus, and shark furnish their *peculiar* varieties. Leather is becoming so scarce and high-priced nowadays that leather *substitutes* are getting into the market; in Germany, where the Great War occasioned various economies, it is said that a shoe with only the uppers of leather and the sole made of thin and *pliant* wood is found to be *practicable.*

RULES FOR SPELLING

17. There was a time when there were no set rules for the spelling of English words. Today there are only a few with which one need be familiar, for the spelling of most words is rigidly fixed and is not determined by rules. There are, however, some rules that will prove of material aid in determining the spelling of certain words. Those you need to know are given on pages xv and xvi of your dictionary. These should be memorized and applied. If the rules contain any words that are unfamiliar to you, refer to the dictionary for an explanation of their meaning.

APPLYING THE RULES FOR SPELLING

18. Directions.—In Exercise VII occur words whose spelling is determined by the rules on pages xv and xvi of the dictionary. Write these words and give after each one the rule that determines its spelling.

EXAMPLES.—

1. emplacement. Rule 4.
2. deferred. Rule 1.

EXERCISE VII

1. emplacement
2. deferred
3. libraries
4. treated
5. potatoes
6. instalment
7. forgetting
8. lying
9. hungriest
10. admittance
11. benches
12. tracking
13. studied
14. admirable
15. ladies

REVIEW EXERCISE

(1) Copy the following story and supply (*a*) all needed capital letters; (*b*) all needed question marks and periods; (*c*) all needed quotation marks. Do not supply any commas.

(2) Under every comma, semicolon, and colon in the following story write the number of the rule which states the reason for having the punctuation mark in that place. Use the numbers by which the rules are designated in Instruction Paper 1920 H.

(3) Copy from this Review Exercise: (*a*) One clause beginning with the word *where;* (*b*) one clause beginning with *while;* (*c*) two clauses beginning with *as;* (*d*) two clauses beginning with *if;* (*e*) two clauses beginning with *what;* (*f*) three clauses beginning with *when;* (*g*) five clauses beginning with *that.*

(4) Copy from the Review Exercise: (*a*) Two simple sentences; (*b*) three compound sentences; (*c*) three complex sentences; (*d*) two declarative sentences; (*e*) two interrogative sentences.

PERSEVERANCE WINS

(PART 2)

we entered the fifth store the little fellow walked up manfully and told the proprietor just what he wanted and how much money he had

do you want the book very much asked the proprietor

yes, sir, very much

why do you want it so much

to study, sir i cannot go to school; but, when i have time, i study at home all the boys have geographies, and they will be ahead of me if i do not get one besides, my father was a sailor and i want to know something about the places where he used to go

does he go to those places now

the boy softly replied, he is dead then he added: i am going to be a sailor

are you, indeed asked the man as he curiously raised his eyebrows

yes, sir, if i live

well, my lad, i shall tell you what i will do; i will let you have a new geography, and you may pay the rest of the money when you can; or i will let you have one that is not new for fifty cents

are the leaves all in it and is it just like others only not new

yes, it is as good as the new ones are

then it will do just as well and i shall have twelve cents toward buying some other book i am glad that they did not let me have one at any of the other places

the bookseller looked up at me inquiringly and i told him what i had seen of the little fellow he was much pleased; and when he brought the book to the boy, i saw some clean white paper and a nice new pencil with it a present, my lad, for your perseverance always have courage like that and you will make your mark, said he

thank you, sir, you are very good

what is your name

william haverley, sir, the boy replied

do you want any more books i now asked while i earnestly regarded the serious little face as he glanced at the volumes that filled the shelves

he replied, more than i can ever get

i gave him a bank bill and said, it will buy some books for you

tears of joy came into his eyes may i buy what i wish with it

yes, my lad, whatever you wish

then i will buy a book for mother, said he i thank you very much and i hope that some day i can repay you he asked my name and i gave it to him then i left him standing there so happy that i almost envied him many years passed before i saw him again

(To be Continued)

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 10)

PARTS OF SPEECH

1. The English language contains thousands of words, but all of these words have been placed in eight classes, which are called *parts of speech.* The parts of speech are named according to what the words do in sentences, and their names are: (1) *noun,* (2) *pronoun,* (3) *verb,* (4) *adjective,* (5) *adverb,* (6) *preposition,* (7) *conjunction,* (8) *interjection.*

We shall now study merely the definitions of each one of these parts of speech and a few of the important details concerning them. Later in the Course, their classes and principal uses will be discussed.

THE NOUN

2. In studying about the simple subject of a sentence, you learned that it usually consists of only one word, and that it names the person or thing about which the rest of the sentence tells something. Note the simple subjects in the following sentences:

The *village* lay between the hills.
Mary likes to work in the garden.
A little *dog* snapped at the children.
New York is the metropolis of this country.
Drooping willow *trees* edged the stream.

The subjects *village, Mary, dog, New York,* and *trees* are the names of different kinds of objects and are known as *nouns.*

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

3. Definition.—A **noun** is the name of some person, place, or thing.

4. A noun is not always the simple subject of a sentence. It has a number of other uses, which you will learn about later. For the present, it will be sufficient for you to keep in mind the fact that a noun always names something. The following are nouns that occur in the conversation of most persons: *man, woman, boy, girl, school, office, horse, cat, wagon, house, smoke, Boston, city, town, automobile, street, John, Pennsylvania, United States, window, capital, train, station, desk, library.*

The nouns in the following paragraph are italicized:

"There are two *sides* to the *question* of *preparation*. There is not merely the military *side;* there is the industrial *side.* And the *ideal* which I have in *mind* is this, *gentlemen:* We ought to have in this *country* a great *system* of industrial and vocational *education,* under Federal *guidance* and with Federal *aid,* in which a very large *percentage* of the *youth* of this *country* will be given *training* in the skilful *use* and *application* of the *principles* of *science* in *maneuver* and *business.* And it will be perfectly feasible and highly desirable to add to that and combine with it such *training* in the *mechanism* and *use* and *care* of *arms,* in the *sanitation* of *camp,* in the simpler *forms* of *maneuver* and *organization,* as will make these same *men* industrially efficient and individually serviceable for national *defense.*"

WRITING NOUNS

EXERCISE I

5. Directions.—1. Write the names of five things that may be seen on an office desk; five, in your room; five, in a grocery store; five, in a machine shop; five, on a railroad.

2. Write the names of five things that you can perceive with the sense of sight; five, with the sense of hearing; five, with the sense of smell; five, with the sense of taste; five, with the sense of touch.

3. Write five sentences, each containing the name of a person, and underline each noun.

4. Write five sentences, each containing the name of a city, and underline each noun.

FILLING BLANKS WITH NOUNS

6. Directions.—Fill the blanks in Exercise II with nouns that will complete the meaning.

EXAMPLES.—

1. ——— fly their ——— in the ———.
   Boys fly their kites in the spring.
2. ——— discovered ——— in the ———.
   Men discovered gold in the stream.

EXERCISE II

1. ——— went to ——— on the ———.
2. ——— shipped the ——— to ——— last ———.
3. The ——— cut his ——— on the ———.
4. ———, please hand me the ——— on the ———.
5. Will ——— catch the ——— for ———?
6. When did ——— bring the ——— from the ———?
7. The ——— blocked the ——— and ——— could not go to ———.
8. How pretty the ——— on the ——— looked in their white ———!
9. How unfortunate that ——— lost his ——— in the ——— at ——— last ———!
10. Did you hear ——— tell his ——— that he won the ——— in the ——— at ——— last ———?

UNDERLINING NOUNS IN SENTENCES

7. Directions.—Copy the sentences in Exercise III and draw one line under each name, or noun.

EXAMPLE.—

The stationery for O. S. Rogers & Co. arrived last evening via the O. & W. R. R.

EXERCISE III

1. The goods were shipped via the Great Lakes.
2. Mr. Roberts shipped the dry goods from New York last Wednesday, via the Erie R. R.
3. John Williams put the box of groceries on the dray.
4. The drayman delivered the groceries at the wrong residence.
5. Last week the manufacturers received from Newark a large order for underwear.

6. The cashier at the bank gave them the bill of lading and they promptly unloaded the iron.

7. The shipping clerk wired ten tags to the shipment of thirty-three pieces of castings.

8. The crew of the Wolverine received two thousand dollars for saving the cargo of the disabled Salem.

9. The commerce between the United States and Cuba is large.

10. W. T. Ansley, the broker, paid six hundred seventy-five dollars for a job lot of dry goods, shipped them to Nanticoke, and retailed them at a net profit of three hundred sixty-five dollars.

NOUNS COMMONLY MISUSED

8. Errors in the use of nouns are common in the speech of many persons. The meanings and uses should therefore be carefully considered. Study the following and be certain you use these nouns correctly.

Ability, Capacity.—*Ability* is physical or mental power, especially the power to perform; it indicates sufficiency of strength, skill. *Capacity* is the power of receiving or containing ideas, knowledge, etc. The correct uses of these words are illustrated in the following:

He has a great *capacity* for dates, scientific names, and mathematics.
He has the *ability* to do what he says he can do.

Act, Action.—*Act* refers to the thing or the result accomplished. *Action* is the process of acting or the method by which a thing is done.

His *acts* of kindness were known afar.
Our soldiers did many kind *acts*.
Your *action* in dealing with the employes was a diplomatic one.

Address, Speech, Talk.—An *address* is formal and may be either spoken or written. A *speech* is less formal than an *address* and is presumed to be spoken. *Addresses* and *speeches* are usually delivered on some special subject, while a *talk* may be on several subjects and usually denotes less thought.

The bishop's *address* was carefully prepared.
Our Congressman made a long *speech*.
Her *talk* was very interesting.

Confidants, Confidence.—These words are so similar in pronunciation that they are sometimes confused. *Confidants*

are those to whom something is confided or entrusted; *confidence* means trust, assurance, belief.

Our parents are generally very trustworthy *confidants*.
I have *confidence* in his ability to make a success of the undertaking.

Council, Counsel.—A *council* is an assembly convened for consultation, advice, or agreement. *Counsel* is mutual advising or deliberation; also, a lawyer who gives advice in legal matters.

The *Council* met and discussed many important matters.
Mr. White is *counsel* for the defendant.
Acting upon their *counsel*, the prisoner decided to make no statement.

Date, Engagement.—An *engagement* is an appointment or a promise to be present at a specified time or place. *Date* used in this sense is vulgar or colloquial and should be avoided. Do not say,

I have a *date* with him for tonight.

You should say,

I have an *engagement* with him for tonight.

Esteem, Estimate, Estimation.—An *estimate* is a value or a rating, usually implying careful consideration and made from incomplete data. *Esteem* means great regard, and generally refers to the merits of a person. *Estimation* means a rough judgment of the worth, extent, or quantity of something, or favorable opinion based on a recognition of value or worth.

He was held in high *esteem* by the company.
In his *estimate* of the man's character, he was not far from right.
He gradually rose in the *estimation* of his superiors.

Favor, Letter.—*Favor* is sometimes used in the sense of *letter*, but in this use, it is a hackneyed term and should be avoided. *Favor* means kind regard, approving disposition, commendation; also a kind act, an act of grace or good-will. If you wish to speak of a *letter*, call it such.

The pupil found *favor* in the sight of the teacher.
He was always glad to do any one a *favor*.
In your *letter* of May 12th you did not give me the required information.

Funds, Money.—The word *funds* is occasionally used where the word *money* is better. *Funds* refers to an accumulation or deposit of resources and in the plural means available

financial resources. *Money* properly refers to coined or stamped metal, such as gold, silver, or copper, issued as a medium of exchange. It also refers to any written or stamped promise or certificate, as a bank note, current as a means of payment.

The salesman was entirely out of *money* when he returned.
The *funds* of the company will soon be exhausted.

House, Home.—A *house* is a fixed structure for human habitation. A *home* is one's dwelling place or abode, but it has associated with it a certain amount of sentiment or feeling.

They are building a new *house* in the country.
She took me into her *home* and comforted me.

Lady, Gentleman.—The word *lady* is used in a number of different senses, but in commercial matter both forms, *lady* and *ladies,* should be avoided. Generally some other appropriate term, such as *woman, wife, housekeeper,* etc., can be substituted. *Women's shoes, housekeeper's sale,* are better than *ladies' shoes, ladies' sale;* also, *saleswoman* is preferred to *saleslady.* In such expressions as *lady clerk, lady stenographer,* and *lady friend,* it is better to omit the word *lady,* as it is not usually necessary to indicate the sex. The word *gentleman* should likewise be used with care in commerce.

Men's overcoats is preferable to *gentlemen's overcoats.* However, in advertisements of exclusive articles, the forms *ladies'* and *gentlemen's* are not incorrect, and in discussing social matters, one may properly speak of *ladies* and *gentlemen.* Note the following correct and incorrect uses of these words:

Gents' furnishings are sold here. (Incorrect)
Men's clothing is sold here. (Correct)
One of our *lady* stenographers left yesterday. (Incorrect)
One of our stenographers left yesterday. (Correct)
One of our stenographers resigned her position yesterday. (Correct)
Two *ladies* and two *gents* strolled down the street. (Incorrect)
Two *women* and two *men* strolled down the street. (Correct)
She stopped to speak to her *gentleman* friend. (Incorrect)
She stopped to speak to her friend. (Correct)

Lot, Number.—*Lot* may be used to refer to any distinct portion or part in the sense of allotment, but it should not be employed in the sense of a great many or a considerable

quantity. *Number,* or a word similar in meaning, may usually be substituted for it in this use.

The foreman has *lots* of patience. (Incorrect)
The foreman has *a great deal* of patience. (Correct)
Lots of visitors came yesterday. (Incorrect)
Many visitors came yesterday. (Correct), *Or*
A *number* of visitors came yesterday. (Correct)

Patron, Customer.—A *patron* is one who supports, protects, favors, or aids some person or thing. When this word is used in the sense of customer, it is colloquial and should be avoided. A *customer* is one who regularly or repeatedly deals in business with a tradesman or a business house.

He has always been regarded as a *patron* of art.
The merchant was desirous of giving satisfaction to all his *customers.*

Persons, People.—The word *persons* refers to individuals, whereas a *people* is a community. The word *people* means a body of persons considered collectively or as a mass or unit.

Most *persons* do not like to have their faults criticized.
A great crowd of *people* gathered to hear the President.
The American *people* are criticized because of their mad pursuit after money.

Statue, Stature, Statute.—A *statue* is the sculptured or modeled likeness of a living being, in the full form on all sides, as in marble or bronze. *Stature* refers to the natural height of a person. A *statute* is a law enacted by a legislature or by the authority of a legislature.

A *statue* of the founder of the school was placed on the campus.
Lincoln was a man of immense *stature.*
Several new *statutes* were the result of the last session of Congress.

DISCRIMINATING BETWEEN NOUNS

9. Directions.—Read the sentences in Exercise IV and determine which of the words enclosed in marks of parenthesis is the correct word to use. Then write the sentences correctly, omitting the incorrect word in each instance.

EXAMPLE.—

1. My ability to secure an interview with the governor was doubted by many of my friends.

EXERCISE IV

1. My (ability, capacity) to secure an interview with the governor was doubted by many of my friends.
2. As a child, I admired him for his (acts, actions) of kindness.
3. My father provided me with the (funds, money) for a trip to California.
4. He is the man to undertake the work as he has the (confidants, confidence) of the people.
5. At a meeting of the (council, counsel) the cave question was discussed.
6. He soon won the (esteem, estimate, estimation) of the firm by his attention to work.
7. The architect has designed many (houses, homes) in this region.
8. I was always glad to be invited to their (house, home) for they were extremely hospitable.
9. I have already made (a date, an engagement) for tonight, but I'll try to break it.
10. In reply to your (favor, letter) of April 5th, I wish to make clear my position in the matter.
11. We went to a store where (gents', men's) furnishings were for sale. In the window we saw a sign which read ("Gentlemen's, Men's) overcoats for sale."
12. That store always has a fine supply of (ladies', women's) hosiery.
13. Many (persons, people) were deprived of a trip to Europe by the war.
14. You will have no trouble in securing (customers, patrons) if you are obliging and sell what the public desires.
15. Men of good (statue, stature, statute) are usually prepossessing.

THE PRONOUN

10. Advantages of the Pronoun.—Notice the difference, in brevity and smoothness, between the following sentences, which express the same thought:

1. (*a*) John hung John's hat on the hook in John's room.
   (*b*) John hung his hat on the hook in his room.
2. (*a*) The girl told the girl's brother that the girl did not hear the girl's brother.
   (*b*) The girl told her brother that she did not hear him.

Observe that in sentence 1 (*b*) the word *his* is twice used for the noun *John's*, and that in sentence 2 (*b*) *her* and *she* take

the place of the noun *girl*, and *him* takes the place of the noun *brother*. These words, which are used to avoid repetition of nouns and to improve the sentences, are called **pronouns.**

11. Definition.—A **pronoun** is a word used for a noun, or a word used to denote some person, place, or thing, without naming it.

12. Pronouns Commonly Used.—Some of the most commonly used pronouns are: *he, she, it, I, you, me, my, our, they, their, them, us, we, his, him, her, your, its, who, whose, whom, that, which, what.* Note the use of some of these pronouns in the following sentences:

I read the book *you* sent *me* and found *it* very interesting.

The characters appealed to *me* because *they* were so natural.

He seemed to enjoy the pleasures of life and yet *he* was not unduly gay nor frivolous.

The situations and incidents were just exciting enough to arouse *our* interest and keep *it* to the end.

She intends to read other books by the same author if *she* can secure *them.*

Who told *you* that *her* mother is ill?

13. Antecedents of Pronouns.—You have learned that a pronoun is a word used for a noun. This noun, or word, for which the pronoun stands, usually comes *before* the pronoun and is called the ANTECEDENT OF THE PRONOUN, the word *antecedent* meaning *that which goes before.*

In the following sentences the antecedents are printed in small capitals and the pronouns in Italics:

RALPH saw *his* mother in the store.

MR. BROWN said, "Give the money to *me.*"

HELEN lost *her* purse.

MRS. MABLE said *she* would tell the girls many interesting stories concerning *her* trip.

The cow cries for *her* calf.

The BOOK *that* is on the table belongs to Catherine.

The STORY *that* the captain told was a good *one.*

My FATHER, *who* is standing on the porch, planted those beautiful trees.

Sometimes the antecedent of a pronoun is not expressed, but is understood. Thus, there are three pronouns in the sentence,

I said that his brother took your letter to the office. Each of these pronouns has a different antecedent and no one of these three antecedents is expressed in the sentence. In, *Who went with you?* and *Which is John's?* the antecedents of *who* and *which* are unknown and are not expressed.

Sometimes the antecedent comes after the pronoun, as *John* and *man* in the following sentences:

When will *you* return, JOHN?
He is the MAN.

SELECTING NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

14. Directions.—Write in a column the nouns that occur in the selection in Exercise V; in another column, write the pronouns.

EXAMPLES.—

Nouns	*Pronouns*
employers	it
people	them
pity	
matter	
business	

EXERCISE V

Employers do not engage people out of pity. It is a pure matter of business with them. It is just like buying goods. They want to know if they are getting their money's worth, and they want to get all they can for their money. They want a good bargain. Every man wants to feel when he hires an employe as he would when buying a horse. He wants a horse with something in him—staying power, spirit, style, force. He does not want to buy a horse that is all played out. He does not want to—and in nine cases out of ten he won't.

A man does not want to hire a weakling or a dyspeptic, bilious, long-faced person who has no faith in himself. He wants force, efficiency, cheerfulness, self-confidence. He does not want to hire depression, discouragement; he probably has more than enough of these in his employ already. He wants energy, life, animal spirits; people who are bubbling over with enthusiasm, who can enter his service with a zest that foreshadows victory. If you have not these qualities, he will prefer to wait for some one who has.

SUPPLYING PRONOUNS

15. Directions.—Copy the sentences in Exercise VI, filling the blanks with suitable pronouns.

EXAMPLE.—

If ——— tease the dog, ——— may bite ———.

If you tease the dog, he may bite you.

EXERCISE VI

1. ——— house is burning and ——— will lose all ——— goods.
2. John sprained ——— ankle as ——— were coming to ——— home.
3. ——— hurried home, put away ——— books, got ——— skates, and came to the pond in ——— field.
4. ——— arrived at the station just as ——— friends and ——— brother alighted from the train.
5. The men ——— were on ——— way to the shop hastened to help ——— brother ——— had ——— leg broken.
6. That man, ——— ——— saw talking to ——— is ——— brother, ——— was paying teller in the Farmers National Bank, ——— stands on the corner of Fifth and Vine streets.
7. ——— was just telling ——— of ——— promotion to the position of cashier, ——— is evidence of faithfulness.
8. The check, ——— her father sent ———, ——— indorsed upside down.
9. When the bank returned ——— pass book and ——— canceled checks, did ——— correspond with ——— check stubs?
10. ——— father refused to cash ——— check, because ——— and the drawer of the check were unknown to ———.

ERRORS TO AVOID IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS

16. You have doubtless frequently heard such incorrect expressions as *It is me, The fruit belongs to you and I,* instead of the correct forms *It is I, The fruit belongs to you and me,* for the wrong forms of pronouns commonly occur in the speech of those who have not made a study of this part of speech. Later, you will learn why certain forms are correct, while others are incorrect. For the present, you should be satisfied to learn to avoid some of the incorrect forms.

Do Not Say	*Do Say*
It was *him* I saw.	It was *he* I saw.
They will divide the oranges between *I* and *you*.	They will divide the oranges between *you* and *me*.
Girls like *she* always succeed.	Girls like *her* always succeed.
Give the book to *whomever* most desires it.	Give the book to *whoever* most desires it.
Whom did you say saw us?	*Who* did you say saw us?
Who are those flowers for?	For *whom* are those flowers?
Let Harry and *I* have it.	Let Harry and *me* have it.
I could not see *whom* it was.	I could not see *who* it was.
Have received your note but cannot do as you ask.	I have received your note but *I* cannot do as you ask.
Give him *me* hat.	Give him *my* hat.
Each boy likes *their* work.	Each boy likes *his* work.
Him and *me* are going camping.	*He* and *I* are going camping.
I am sure that she saw *he* and *I*.	I am sure that she saw *him* and *me*.
Us girls intend to go to the seashore.	*We* girls intend to go to the seashore.
They bought it for *she* and *I*.	They bought it for *her* and *me*.
My father objected to *me* going.	My father objected to *my* going.
Albert and *her* work in the same mill.	Albert and *she* work in the same mill.
Is that *her* now going into the house? Yes, that is *her*.	Is that *she* now going into the house? Yes, that is *she*.
The cat has lost *it's* tail.	The cat has lost *its* tail.
I am sure it was *him*.	I am sure it was *he*.
They had a wreck on the Erie yesterday.	*There* was a wreck on the Erie yesterday.
There is a good ballground here where they have games twice a week.	There is a good ballground here where games are played twice a week.

THE VERB

17. Qualities of the Verb.—In the sentence *Fire burns*, the word *burns* tells what fire does. In *The fire is quenched*, the words *is quenched* tell what has been done to the fire; while in *The fire smolders*, the word *smolders* expresses a state, or condition, of the fire.

These words, which tell what the fire does, what is done to it, or what condition it is in, belong to the large and important class of words called **verbs.**

18. In studying about the predicate of a sentence, you learned that it contains a certain word or words known as the simple predicate, which takes a leading part in making a statement, asking a question, or expressing a command. In fact, this word, which is the *verb,* is the most important word in the sentence, for without it no complete thought can be expressed. Note the simple predicates, or verbs, in the following sentences:

The birds in the trees *sing* all day long.
The clerks in the bank *are enjoying* a holiday.
Has your trunk *arrived* yet?
Were John's wages *increased* last month?
Select large solid peaches for canning.

In these sentences, *sing, are enjoying, has arrived, were increased,* and *select* make assertions, ask questions, or express commands concerning persons and things, and are the simple *predicates* or *verbs.* Other examples of verbs are:

Sing, jump, play, skate, become, think, love, hate, imagine, dance, sleep, rest, hope, depart, despair, recline, prove, assist, build, is, die, are talking, seem, were digging.

19. Definition.—A **verb** is a word used to assert, to ask, or to command.

20. There are several important things to remember about this part of speech.

1. It may consist of more than one word; as in,

I *have been working* for this firm for two years.
He *has been digging* in the garden all day.
They *have taken* a great deal of interest in John.

In such cases, the last word of the verb is the principal one; the others are merely helping words used in forming the complete verb.

2. Some verbs express action; in fact, most verbs are used for this purpose. Others, however, express condition or state. Note the different ideas expressed by the verbs in the following sentences:

The children *danced* merrily around the May pole. (Action)
The little stream *abounds* in trout. (Condition)
He *lay* on the grass, watching the stars. (State)

3. Sometimes the words of a verb are separated by other words; as in,

Those houses *were* not *burned*.
We *have* not, in many years, *been* so *afflicted* by fires.

SUPPLYING VERBS

21. Directions.—After each of the nouns in Exercise VII write five verbs that express action by telling what the noun *does*.

EXAMPLES.—

Trees	grow.	The wind	blows.
	decay.		whistles.
	die.		rises.
	bend.		falls.
	spread.		swells.

EXERCISE VII

1. The fire		5. That fireman	
2. A ship		6. The captain	
3. My father		7. The freight agent	
4. Those clerks		8. Our foreman	

INDICATING THE SUBJECTS, PREDICATES, AND VERBS IN SENTENCES

22. Directions.—Write the sentences in Exercise VIII. Then separate the complete subjects and the complete predicates by means of a vertical line and underscore the verbs that occur in the predicates. In preparing this work, apply what is given in Part 5 concerning complete subjects and complete predicates.

EXAMPLE.—

1. The foreman | overcame all difficulties through perseverance.

EXERCISE VIII

1. The foreman overcame all difficulties through perseverance.
2. A large tree lay across our path.
3. Twenty street cars were blocked by the wreck.
4. A warm sultry day makes a person languid.
5. Does the elephant clean stumps from fields in India?
6. The fire engine dashed down the busy street.
7. Checks are a great convenience to business men.
8. Why do not the employes of that company belong to the union?
9. The mill is idle one day of every week.
10. The foreman will not give the man another chance.

VERBS FREQUENTLY MISUSED

23. Attention is here called to a number of verbs that are commonly misused:

Get, Got.—The little words *get* and *got* are often used incorrectly. Compare the following sentences and observe how much better the correct forms convey the meaning intended, and how much better these sentences sound.

Wrong	*Right*
Did he get killed?	Was he killed?
He will get injured if he is not careful.	He will be injured if he is not careful.
Did Mrs. Brown get worried?	Did Mrs. Brown become worried?
I have got the ball.	I have the ball.
He has got no pencil.	He has no pencil.
She has got to go.	She must go.
I haven't got no time.	I have no time.

Be sure that you do not misuse these words in your speech and your writing.

Ought, Had Ought.—Never use *had ought*, as *ought* cannot be correctly used with *had*.

Wrong	*Right*
You had ought to see him.	You ought to see him.
Do you think you had ought to have accepted?	Do you think you ought to have accepted?
We had ought to take our coats.	We ought to take our coats.
They hadn't ought to disagree.	They ought not to disagree.
The money had ought to have come yesterday.	The money ought to have come yesterday.

Ain't, Hain't.—The terms *ain't* and *hain't* are frequently heard in such expressions as, *He ain't come, Hain't you going to do it?* etc. Such expressions are always wrong, for the contractions *ain't* and *hain't* are not recognized as being in good usage. Instead of *ain't,* use *am not, is not, isn't, are not,* or *aren't.* Where you would employ *hain't* use *has not, have not, hasn't,* or *haven't.*

Wrong	*Right*
Ain't you the man who applied for the position?	*Aren't* you the man who applied for the position?
They *hain't* had the proper training for the work.	They *haven't* had the proper training for the work.
I *ain't* going to submit to such treatment.	I *am not* going to submit to such treatment.
Hain't John come yet?	*Hasn't* John come yet?

Blame.—Things or actions are not *blamed on* people, but people are *blamed for* things or actions. Do not say *They blamed the accident on the engineer,* but rather *They blamed the engineer for the accident. Blame* is used correctly in the following sentences:

She *blamed* her memory for the mistake she made.
We all knew that the driver was to *blame* for the trouble.

Bring, Fetch.—*Bring* means to bear to a nearer place, to convey, carry, lead, guide. *Fetch* means to go and bring. Therefore, *bring* implies motion in one direction, whereas *fetch* indicates motion in two directions. When I say, *Fetch me the letters I wrote this morning,* I mean that the person to whom I am speaking is to go for the letters and bring them to me. However, if I say, *Bring me the letters I wrote this morning,* I imply that the person whom I am addressing is near the letters and I want him to carry the letters to me. In the first sentence, motion to and from is implied in the verb *fetch* while in the second sentence, only one motion is implied in *bring.*

He usually *brings* something when he comes from town.
John, *fetch* me a pail of water from the well.

Lend, Loan.—*Lend* is a verb and *loan* is a noun and they should not be confused. The verb *lend* means to allow the use of something on condition of the return of the same; as, to lend money or a book. The noun *loan* means the act of lend-

ing or permission to use; also, that which one lends or borrows.

We petitioned the banks to *lend* us sufficient money to undertake the enterprise.

The *loan* was not so large as we expected.

Loose, Lose.—These two words are frequently confounded. *Loose* as a verb means to unbind, to unpack, to make less tight. *Lose* means to part with, to fail to keep.

We *loosed* the bands that fastened his hands together.

He urged us not to *lose* interest in the enterprise.

We expect to *lose* money on these goods.

State.—When a person merely wishes to say something, he should not use the word *state*. *State* is more formal than *say, tell, inform, suggest, express, mention,* etc. and should not be used merely to narrate or recite, but should be used to express the particulars of, or to set forth in detail. Thus, we may say, *He stated the facts of the case clearly and concisely,* but not *They stated that they would come. State* is correctly used in the following sentences:

The bankrupt merchant *stated* the condition of his business affairs to the court.

The counsel was always ready to *state* his opinion when requested by the proper person.

Fix, Mend, Repair.—*Fix* means to make firm, stable, fast, or constant. However, it has become weakened until it is now much used in the sense of *mend* or *repair,* but its use should be avoided in any but its correct meanings. Do not say, *I sent my automobile away to be fixed,* but rather, *I sent my automobile away to be repaired. Fix* is used correctly in the sentences:

Try to *fix* the important dates in your mind.

We *fixed* our attention on the matter for at least an hour.

The showmen *fixed* the tents securely by means of poles.

CORRECTING ERRORS IN THE USE OF VERBS

24. Directions.—Errors in the use of verbs occur in the sentences of Exercise IX. Read these sentences carefully and determine what is wrong in each one. Then write them correctly.

EXERCISE IX

1. He overcharged me for fixing the tires on my automobile.
2. I have got to study this evening.
3. She replied, "I am always glad to loan my books."
4. The postman fetches me many letters every morning.
5. You had ought to do your work more carefully.
6. We did not blame the runaway on the horse, for he was not tied.
7. Father stated that we should be home by ten o'clock.
8. The machinist fixed the boiler in a short time.
9. We ain't seen the boys for a week.
10. He asked the guard to lose his hands that he might write.

THE ADJECTIVE

25. Most nouns, when used alone, denote persons or things in an indefinite way. Take, for example, the noun *apple*. When this word stands by itself it is very wide in its application, for it refers to any apple. However, we can restrict it to some particular apple by adding to it words that limit or describe the special one to which it refers. Suppose we say,

large apple
large green apple
large green sour apple
large green sour hard apple

In the first expression, *large* limits the noun to apples of that particular size; in the second one, *green* bars from the class apples of other colors; in the third, *sour* still further restricts the noun by referring to the taste of the apple; in the fourth, *hard* adds another detail that separates this apple from all others. These examples show that the more descriptive or limiting terms added to a noun the narrower becomes the class. Note the terms of this kind in the following sentences:

The faithful DOG guarded my door.
Many dark CLOUDS indicated *a* STORM.
An ill-dressed MAN spoke to us.
Red INK was used for corrections.
Large ripe PEACHES were for sale.

Words like *the*, *faithful*, *many*, *dark*, *a*, *an*, *ill-dressed*, *red*, *large*, and *ripe*, which describe or point out persons or things, are known as adjectives.

26. Definition.—An **adjective** is a word that limits or describes the person or thing denoted by a noun or a pronoun.

27. Adjectives are used in almost every sentence we express. They are therefore an important part of speech and should receive much attention. Note for what purpose the adjectives are used in the following sentences:

Sturdy young boys assisted him.
Large ripe strawberries were served to us.
He was confronted with *a difficult* task.
An old coat hung near me.
The stenographer wrote *twenty short* letters.
A beautiful yellow butterfly flew over our heads.
Great heaps of snow blocked *the* traffic.
We have *the latest* magazines for sale.
She wore *a dainty pink* dress.
The Mississippi River is *a broad muddy* stream.

THE ADVERB

28. As nouns and pronouns frequently have with them words that help to restrict their class, so verbs often have joined to them words that describe the action or state expressed by them. Take for example the sentence, *He jumped quickly to one side.* Here the word *quickly* tells how he jumped; it therefore gives a detail regarding the action expressed by the verb *jumped.* Similar words occur in the following sentences:

The drowning boys called *loudly* for help.
She worked *patiently* on her problems.
The stream flowed *swiftly* down the mountain side.
Father was called *away.*
We watched *eagerly* for their approach.
She *neatly* wrote the letters I dictated.
He came *yesterday* to father's office.

The words that are joined to the verbs in these sentences to describe their action are called adverbs, the word *adverb* meaning *to a verb.* It is from their frequent use as modifiers of verbs that adverbs get their name; however, they are also used to modify adjectives and other adverbs. They are employed for these purposes in the following sentences:

The girl seemed *extremely* unhappy. (Modifies the adjective unhappy.)

The girl is *much* taller than her mother. (Modifies the adjective taller.)

That couple dances *more* gracefully than this one. (Modifies the adverb gracefully.)

John writes *very* plainly. (Modifies the adverb plainly.)

29. Definition.—An **adverb** is a word that modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

30. The italicized words in the following sentences are adverbs. Determine for what purpose they are used:

He spoke *cheerfully* although he was *very* sad.
The editor wrote *rapidly* for an hour and *then* went out.
They *readily* agreed to our terms.
Recently an inspection of the building was made.
We did justice to the *extremely* good dinner that awaited us.
The dog barked *loudly* at the strangers.
We found that the work was *rather carelessly* done.
The thief ran *so fast* that we could *not* catch him.
The enemy was *finally* repulsed.
We *soon* found that she was *easily* offended.
The *exceptionally* difficult task did *not* dismay him.

SELECTING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

31. Directions.—Make a list of the adjectives in the sentences in Exercise X and another list of the adverbs:

EXAMPLE.—

	Adjectives	*Adverbs*
1.	a	noisily
	large	
	thick	
	the	

EXERCISE X

1. A large thick book fell noisily to the floor.
2. Several applicants appeared but none were entirely satisfactory.
3. The scissors were so dull that they would hardly cut the cloth.
4. John's dog was an exceptionally intelligent animal.
5. The old Indian tramped silently through the woods.
6. The company soon provided a delightful rest room for their employes.

7. The chief clerk is an exceedingly trustworthy man.
8. Mary has almost completed the course and will soon be ready for a position.
9. The tourists were enthusiastic about the flowers that they found everywhere.
10. Outside, the ground was completly covered with white, glistening snow.

EXERCISE XI

32. Directions.—(*a*) Supply adjectives in the blank spaces in the following sentences:

EXAMPLE.—

1. Four strong horses pulled the heavy wagon.

1. Four ——— horses pulled the ——— wagon.
2. He proved himself to be a ——— merchant.
3. A ——— candle provided the ——— light in the ——— room.
4. We sat around the ——— fire for an hour.
5. They want a ——— man for ——— work.

(*b*) Supply adverbs in the blank spaces in the following sentences:

EXAMPLE.—

1. The soldiers fought bravely.

1. The soldiers fought ———.
2. We found the campers ——— situated.
3. He found it ——— difficult to write shorthand.
4. The lecturer spoke very ———.
5. The man seemed ——— feeble to work.

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY MISUSED

33. Following are examples of some errors that are frequently made in the use of adjectives:

Above.—This word is an adverb, but it may be used as an adjective if the thing to which it refers is actually above. Letter writers often make a reference like *the above statement,* when the statement referred to appears on another page. Care should be taken not to use the word *above* as a noun. The following sentence is incorrect:

Should the *above* meet your approval, I should be pleased to hear from you.

It should be changed to read,

Should the *foregoing proposition* meet your approval, I should be pleased to hear from you.

Above may be used in such sentences as,

If the *above* statement is correct, you are in the wrong.
The *above* paragraph states the case very well.

The writer, however, should be sure that the thing referred to is actually above and on the same page.

All Right.—The expression *all right,* meaning well, satisfactory, very well, although possible in the colloquial style of familiar intercourse, is not dignified, and should not be employed in serious composition. If, however, it is so used, it should not be treated as one word and written *alright.* The sentence, *It was alright for you to come early* should read, *It was all right for you to come early.*

All, Whole.—The expressions *the whole, the whole of,* should never be used in the sense of *all* to modify a noun that means more than one. We should not say,

A message brought the whole particulars.
We brought the whole of the apples to town.

It is correct to say,

A message brought *all* the particulars.
We brought *all* the apples to town.

Alone, Only.—*Alone* is always an adjective, while *only* may be used either as an adjective or as an adverb. When *only* is an adjective, it is similar in meaning to *alone,* but *alone* should not be confused with the adverb *only.* Much care should be exercised in the use of these words so that the intended meaning is expressed. Note the following sentences:

He *alone* appreciated the efforts of his coworkers.
It is *only* a mile to the station.
She is the *only* person who gave me any encouragement.

Anxious, Desirous.—*Anxious* means accompanied with or causing anxiety. It should therefore not be substituted for *desirous,* which means characterized by desire. These words are used correctly in the sentences:

The mother was *anxious* about her son's return.
The employer was *desirous* of seeing his employes advance.

Any, Either.—The word *either,* whether it is an adjective or a pronoun, is used with reference to two things; *any* is used with reference to more than two.

We saw two houses, but we did not like *either* of them.

I looked at several houses, but I did not care to buy *any* of them.

Here are four samples. You may choose *any one* you like.

I selected two styles, but I was not exactly suited with *either.*

Awful.—The word *awful* has a place in the English language, but it is greatly abused. It means inspiring awe or fright, and should not be applied to common and ordinary happenings. We may speak of *an awful disaster, an awful explosion, an awful massacre,* but it is absurd to say *an awful funny story, an awfully nice time, an awful warm day.* The following sentences show how this word may be used:

An *awful* battle followed the attack of the enemy.

The massacre of the white people by the Indians was an *awful* though common occurrence.

Suddenly an *awful* roar broke the silence of the night.

Dumb, Stupid.—*Dumb* means destitute of the power of speech, silent. When used in the sense of *stupid* or *dull,* it is a colloquialism, and this use should therefore be avoided. We may say,

A deaf and *dumb* man painted that picture.

If we judge the man by his books, we must call him a *stupid* writer.

Funny, Odd, Strange.—*Funny* is often used in the sense of *odd* or *strange,* but it is not correct in this sense and should be avoided. The true meanings of *funny* are *droll, comical, laughable, amusing, humorous.* Thus, we may say,

The *funny* stories he told created much amusement.

Rip Van Winkle was an *odd* sort of person.

We visited a *strange* land and observed *peculiar* customs among the people.

Fewer, Less.—*Fewer* relates to number or to groups of separate things that can be counted. *Less* relates to quantity that does not consist of separate, individual parts. We say *fewer books, fewer persons, fewer thoughts, fewer dogs,* but *less water, less energy, less wealth.*

When we entered the room, there were *fewer* men present than women.

He had *less* capital than his partner when he entered the firm.

Latest, Last.—Although these words appear similar in meaning, there is a difference between them that should be observed. That is *last* which follows all others, especially of the same sort; that is *latest* which is furthest advanced toward a given or set time, or, of preceding events, the one that is nearest to the present time. This distinction is shown in the following sentences:

The *latest* train you can take leaves at 6:10 P. M.
The *last* part of the book was more interesting than the first.

Lovely.—This is a word that is very much overused. It means *beautiful,* especially having a delicate beauty. However, it has a number of synonyms, among which are *charming, sweet, beautiful, enjoyable, delightful, delectable, enchanting, lovable, pleasing, amiable, winning,* and *winsome.* These usually express more definitely the idea intended. Instead of saying, *We had a lovely trip,* it would be better to say, *We had a pleasant trip.* Note the following examples:

Many *lovely* flowers were sent to the sick girl.
What a *charming* woman is the president of your club.
The child has a *sweet* disposition.
We have a *beautiful* view from our front windows.
The enthusiasm of the audience was *delightful* to the performers.
A *delectable* feast greeted our eyes as we entered the dining room.
In the last act, an *enchanting* scene delighted the audience.

Mad, Angry.—*Mad* is used to a large extent where *angry* is required. The correct meanings of these words should therefore be kept in mind. *Mad* means disordered in intellect, insane, rashly foolish, rabid. *Angry* means troublesome, vexatious, affected with anger, enraged. Note how these words are used in the following:

A *mad* dog escaped into the streets and caused much consternation among the people.
The insults heaped upon him made him very *angry.*

Many, Much.—*Many* refers to number, and *much* to quantity. In applying this principle, however, sums of money, weights, and measured quantity regarded as one sum or mass require *much* rather than *many.*

I think there must have been as *many* as a hundred guests at the hotel.

He was willing to pay as *much* as one thousand dollars for the lot.
The regiment numbers as *many* as twelve hundred men.
We may escape *much* trouble in life by not anticipating trouble.

Scared of, Afraid of.—Do not say *scared of* when you mean *afraid of,* for *scared of* is a colloquial expression. Such a statement as, *He was scared of the consequences of his action,* should be *He is afraid of the consequences of his action.*

ADVERBS FREQUENTLY MISUSED

34. Following are examples of some adverbs that are frequently misused:

All Ready, Already.—*All* and *ready* may be used as separate words, but should never be united to form one term. The form *already* is an adverb used to refer to action that is previous to some specified time. Care should be taken in the spelling of this word, for it is sometimes confused with *all* and *ready* and spelled as if it were a combination of them.

They were *all ready* when we arrived.
He had *already* invested the money when we warned him.

Anyhow.—This is a correct word when it is used in its proper sense, but it is sometimes employed incorrectly in the sense of indifferently, carelessly. *Anyhow* used correctly means in any way or manner whatever; at any rate, in any event. It is used incorrectly in the sentence, *He did his work just anyhow,* but its correct use is illustrated in the sentences:

Anyhow, his loyalty to the company must be acknowledged.
He has regained his health; *anyhow* he is at work again.

Directly, Immediately.—The use of *directly* and *immediately* in the sense of *as soon as* or *when* is a British colloquialism that has been introduced into the United States, but it produces an awkward construction and should be avoided. *Directly* is also sometimes misused for *at once, immediately.* Note what peculiar sentences are the following:

Directly he entered the room, all conversation ceased.
Immediately he met me, he assailed me with much bitterness.

These sentences sound much better and they express the intended meaning more clearly when they are changed to read:

As soon as he entered the room, all conversation ceased.
When he met me, he assailed me with much bitterness.

Generally, Usually, Commonly.—These are all perfectly good words and they are similar in meaning, but the first one, *generally*, is somewhat overworked. *Usually, commonly*, and other words of a similar nature, often express the meaning better than does *generally*. Don't say,

He *generally* goes home at noon.
It is an error *generally* seen in advertisements.

It would be better to say,

He *usually* goes home at noon.
It is an error *commonly* seen in advertisements.

Kind of, Sort of.—These are expressions that are heard a great deal in the sense of *very, somewhat*, or *rather*, but they are colloquial and should be avoided. Do not say, *I am kind of tired*, or *I felt sort of sure it would rain today*, but rather *I am somewhat tired, I am rather tired*, or *I felt very sure it would rain today*.

Quite.—Strictly speaking, this word means *completely, wholly, entirely*, or *totally*, but it is loosely used in the sense of *very, rather, somewhat, considerably*. Care should be exercised to use it in only its proper meanings. Do not say, *I am quite well, thank you*, but *I am very well, thank you*. *Quite a few, quite some, quite a lot, quite a good many, quite a number* are expressions that should be avoided. In the following illustrations, *quite* is correctly used:

I have not *quite* finished the letter.
The reservoir is *quite* empty.
She is *quite* able to support herself.
It was *quite* dark when we reached our hotel.

Two, Too, To.—These three words are very often confused because their pronunciation is the same, but they belong to three different parts of speech, and care should be used in deciding which one to employ. *Two* is an adjective meaning one and one; *too* is an adverb meaning more than enough; *to* is a preposition indicating that toward which there is movement and at which there is arrival. These words are used correctly in the following:

Two lake boats were lost in the storm last night.
He was *too* slow to suit the manager.
The road extends from New York *to* Buffalo.

That.—*That* is sometimes used incorrectly as an adverb in the sense of *so*. Do not say,

I was *that* tired I could scarcely stand.
He must not remain away from his work *that* long.
I do not feel able to pay *that* much money for the book.

Sentences like these should read:

I was *so* tired I could scarcely stand.
He must not remain away from his work *so* long.
I do not feel able to pay *so* much money for the book.

Some.—This word is an adjective meaning an undefined quantity or part referring to a certain portion or number; as, *Some men express their opinions openly*. However, it is sometimes used incorrectly as an adverb to mean *rather, somewhat, a little*. Such sentences as the following, though incorrect, are often heard:

My brother is *some* better this morning.
We were *some* pleased about the result.
I walk *some* every morning.

These sentences should read,

My brother is *somewhat* better this morning.
We were *somewhat* pleased about the result.
I walk *a little* every morning.

Most.—*Most* is often used incorrectly where *almost* or *nearly* is the proper word to use. This use of *most* is illustrated in the following sentences:

The tired child kept asking, "Are we *most* there?"
Most every writer agrees with me on this matter.

These sentences should read,

The tired child kept asking, "Are we *almost* there?"
Nearly every writer agrees with me on this matter.

CORRECTING ERRORS IN ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

35. Directions.—The sentences in Exercise XII contain adjectives or adverbs used incorrectly. Determine what is wrong in each sentence and then write all the sentences correctly.

EXERCISE XII

1. The boy became very mad when he found out what his friends had done.
2. When you are already, please telephone too me.
3. I am kind of glad that he consented to take the position, for I am certain he can do the work alright.
4. The office boy was always scared of displeasing the boss.
5. In his opinion, the whole of the people should be educated.
6. Please give consideration to the above and let me know your decision directly.
7. To me, it was an awful rare treat to have an opportunity to hear her sing, but it was funny to see how much May enjoyed the concert.
8. This is the last book she has had published, but she is now working on another which is said to be quite fascinating.
9. We came to a lovely forest through which we wandered dreamily.
10. I am some tired, but I think I shall be sufficiently rested to start at to o'clock.

THE PREPOSITION

36. In nearly every sentence use is made of certain words that do not seem to have so important a function as the parts of speech already explained, but that in reality perform a very useful work. For example, note the italicized words in the sentence,

We rested *under* the tree *for* an hour.

The word *under,* while its office is not as distinct as that of some of the other words in this sentence, is used for the purpose of joining the noun *tree* to the verb *rested.* In joining these two words, it establishes a relationship between them—shows that under the tree was the place where we rested. Unless this word is used, the proper connection cannot be shown between *rested* and *tree. For* is another word of this same kind. It connects the noun *hour* with the verb *rested* and shows the relation that exists between these two words.

To words of this kind the name *preposition* is given. This word means *placed before* and it is applied to this part of speech because a preposition is nearly always placed before the

noun or the pronoun with which it is used. Note how the prepositions in the following sentences are used:

They live *beyond* their MEANS.
We profited *by* their MISTAKES.
A letter *from* the FIRM just came.
The children's mother read *to* THEM.
He will stay *for* a WEEK.
The firm gave every employe an increase *in* SALARY.
We grew restless *during* the SPEECH.
He repeated the statement *for* our BENEFIT.
That family moved *across* the STREET *in* the SPRING.

37. Definition.—A **preposition** is a word that connects other words and shows the relation between them.

38. Some of the prepositions most commonly used are: *above, about, across, after, against, among, at, before, below, beneath, between, beyond, by, concerning, during, for, from, in, into, near, of, on, over, through, to, toward, upon, with, within,* and *without.*

39. Phrases.—It will be noted that in the sentences illustrating prepositions, some noun or pronoun occurs after the preposition and is brought into relationship with some other word by means of the preposition. The expression formed by the preposition and this noun or pronoun forms an element known as a **phrase.** In the following sentences, each italicized expression is a phrase:

A gentle breeze *from the south* was sighing *in the trees.*
A gleam *of anger* flashed *in his eyes.*
The path *through the garden* was shaded *by tall slender trees.*
The boy went *into the garage* and asked his father *for the car.*

PREPOSITIONS COMMONLY MISUSED

40. The following are examples of prepositions that are frequently misused:

Among, Between.—*Between* is the proper preposition to use when reference is made to only two persons or things. *Among* is used when more than two persons or things are mentioned. The following sentences show the correct uses of these words:

Pleasant relations always existed *among* the members of that family.
There has never been the slightest trouble *between* the twins.

Among the beautiful pictures that hang on Memory's wall,
Is one of a dim old forest that seemeth best of all.

It is hard to choose *between* the two applicants.

At, In.—*In* is the proper preposition to use when the interior of any place is to be made prominent. *At* is employed when a place is regarded as a mere local point. Thus, we say, *We went for a walk in the park* and *I shall meet you at the entrance to the park*. *In* is used before the names of countries, districts, and large cities; whereas *at* is commonly employed before the names of institutions, villages, and small towns. We would say, *We live in Pennsylvania at White's Ferry*. *At* should be used before the numbers of a house, and *in* (not *on*) before the name of the street; as, *We found her at the Armory in Adams Avenue*. The following sentences show further the distinction between these two words:

We were *in* New York *at* the time of the celebration.
Please see me *at* my place of business tomorrow morning.
I searched for the book *in* the library, but I couldn't find it.
We stood *at* the fountain and admired the beauty of the scene.

In, Into.—*In* generally indicates simple location, whereas *into* is used with verbs of motion to denote direction or entrance. Note the following illustrations:

He ran *into* the house to tell us the news.
The operation was performed *in* the doctor's office.
The children waded *in* the stream for an hour.
They packed the lumber *into* the car very hurriedly as their customer was waiting for it.

Beside, Besides.—*Beside* means by the side of and is employed as a preposition only. *Besides* is used chiefly as an adverb, but it is also employed as a preposition in the sense of in addition to, other than. These words are prepositions in the following sentences:

John always sat *beside* his father in church.
I have nothing to say *besides* what my report includes.
For several hours, we sat *beside* the brook, watching the quiet, little stream.
We found no one at home *besides* the minister.

By, With.—*By* is the proper preposition to use when the doer or the agent is to be emphasized. *With* is employed when we wish to show the means or instrument with which something is done. These prepositions are distinguished in the following sentences:

This picture was painted *by* Sargent, the great artist.
The company provided him *with* money for the trip.
We were escorted to the place of meeting *by* a crowd of enthusiastic supporters.
The candidate was greeted *with* much enthusiasm *by* the members of his party.

Over With, Over.—The expression *over with* should not be used where merely *over* is required. Do not say, *I am glad that our rehearsals are over with,* but rather, *I am glad that our rehearsals are over.*

Outside of, Aside From.—*Outside of* should not be used where the expression *aside from* is required. Instead of saying *Outside of that mistake, your letter is well written,* you should say *Aside from that mistake, your letter is well written.*

Of, Have.—We often see and hear the preposition *of* used where the verb *have* is required. This is a very grave error and should be carefully avoided. Do not allow yourself to make such statements as the following:

He would *of* gone if you had urged him.
I might *of* known he would do it.

These sentences should read,

He would *have* gone if you had urged him.
I might *have* known he would do it.

Sometimes the apparent error in using *of* for *have* in spoken language is due to a lack of clear enunciation on the part of the speaker. He may pronounce the words *would have* or *should have* very quickly so that they sound like *would of* or *should of.* Watch your pronunciation of these words when they are combined. Enunciate correctly each of the following:

He could have gone had he wanted to go.
She might have talked to us.
The boy should have helped his father.

THE CONJUNCTION

41. There is another group of words that are used to join the parts of a sentence. In this respect these words are like prepositions, but they do not show relation as prepositions do. Take, for example, the sentence, *The paper and the pens have not yet arrived.* The word *and* connects the two nouns *paper* and *pens* which are the subjects of this sentence. It has no other function, but without it we could not show that these two nouns are to be spoken of in a similar way and are used for the same purpose in the sentence.

The following sentences also contain connecting words, which are italicized:

You *or* John will be appointed for the place.
He hurried to work *but* he arrived there late.
Our employer is generous *and* sympathetic.
The boys were tired *and* sleepy when they returned.
The teacher was not happy *nor* contented.
The guests arrived earlier *than* we expected.

Such words as *or, but, and, nor, than,* which are used for the purpose of joining certain parts of sentences, are called conjunctions. The word conjunction means joining or connecting.

42. Definition.—A **conjunction** is a word that joins words or groups of words.

43. Some of the most commonly used conjunctions are: *but, for, and, if, or, nor, still, yet, since, because, as, unless, although, whether, therefore, though.* These have been mentioned in preceding lessons and spoken of as connecting words, or connectives.

SELECTING PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS

44. Directions.—The sentences in Exercise XIII contain prepositions and conjunctions. Make a list of the prepositions in them and another list of the conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.—

Prepositions	*Conjunctions*
beside	and
on	

EXERCISE XIII

1. Two balls and a tennis racket were lying on the grass beside him.
2. A train of cars filled with coal sped down the track.
3. Many papers and several letters were scattered over the top of the desk.
4. Our flag, bright with its stars and stripes, floated in the breeze from the topmast.
5. The boys did not agree about the matter; yet they did not quarrel concerning it.
6. As we approached, he rose from his chair and greeted us politely and cordially.
7. Neither man nor boy resisted the call to arms.
8. Sooner or later, you must come to that decision.
9. Although we repeated the directions again and again, she turned up the wrong street and consequently could not find the place.
10. Be still, sad heart! and cease repining;
    Behind the clouds is the sun still shining;
    Thy fate is the common fate of all,
    Into each life some rain must fall,
    Some days must be dark and dreary.

CONJUNCTIONS COMMONLY MISUSED

45. Following are examples of the misuse of conjunctions, which are commonly met:

And, But.—The conjunction *and* usually suggests the meaning *in addition to,* while *but* implies contrast or opposition. *And* is frequently incorrectly used where *but* is the correct conjunction.

This book is not perfect, *but* (not *and*) it is very helpful.
I asked him to help me, *but* (not *and*) he refused.
The boys are hungry, *but* (not *and*) they have no food.

Like.—The word *like* is frequently used as a conjunction where *as* or *as if* would be correct. Never use *like* as a conjunction. *Do like I do* and *Act like you were a man* are wrong. *Do as I do* and *Act as if you were a man* are the correct forms.

Than.—The word *than,* not *but,* should follow *else, other, rather,* or *likewise* when comparison is denoted.

Wrong	*Right*
She could do nothing else *but* pay her bill.	She could do nothing else *than* pay her bill.
He has no other book *but* this one.	He has no book other *than* this one.

Than should never occur after the word *different*. Use *different from*, not *different than*. Note the following:

His sample is different *from* (not *than*) mine.

The word *then* is also frequently written for *than*. Watch the spelling of this word.

Neither, Nor; Either, Or.—*Nor* should always be used after *neither*, while *or* properly occurs after *either*.

Wrong	*Right*
Neither John *or* Harry will go.	*Neither* John *nor* Harry will go.
We can see *neither* you *or* your friend.	We can see *neither* you *nor* your friend.

After *not* or *never*, *nor* is usually the correct word to use; as,

The child was *not* tired *nor* sleepy.

The bird *never* sang *nor* chirped again.

Except, Without, Unless.—*Except* and *without* are prepositions that are frequently used where the conjunction *unless* is the correct term. Never use *except* or *without* as a conjunction.

Wrong	*Right*
You cannot go *except* John calls for you.	You cannot go *unless* John calls for you.
I will not stay *without* you stay also.	I will not stay *unless* you stay also.
Without you have a good reason for your action, it is unusual.	*Unless* you have a good reason for your action, it is unusual.

Provided, Providing.—Very often *provided*, a conjunction that means *on condition*, is replaced by the word *providing*. This error is probably due to the similarity in form between these two words. Do not use *providing* as a conjunction; it is a form of the verb *provide*.

The soldier will return to his company *provided* (not *providing*) he has finished guard duty.

Provided (not *providing*) you are willing, we shall start at once.

I shall be glad to read the book *provided* (not *providing*) it is interesting.

DISCRIMINATING IN THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS AND PREPOSITIONS

46. Directions.—Write correctly the sentences in Exercise XIV, using in each one the proper word or expression of those enclosed in marks of parenthesis.

EXERCISE XIV

1. You may divide the money (between, among) you and your sister.
2. I argued the case strongly, (and, but) he remained unconvinced.
3. She has been a student (at, in) Wellesley for two years.
4. I went (in, into) the garage for my car.
5. I heard a peculiar sound (like, as, as if) some one were trying to get in.
6. You can not see her (except, without, unless) the nurse says you may.
7. (Beside, besides) the open fireplace stood the old man's gun.
8. The hunter was killed (by, with) the gun of one of his friends.
9. (Provided, providing) mother is willing, we shall go.
10. He should (of, have) reported before he left the shop.
11. Heaving a sigh, she said, "I'm thankful that is (over, over with.")
12. This book is different (than, from) the one you bought.

THE INTERJECTION

47. Each part of speech discussed thus far has a distinct office in the sentence in which it occurs and has a grammatical dependence upon some other element. There is a part of speech, however, that has no grammatical connection with any other word, but is used merely to denote emotion of some kind, such as surprise, sorrow, anger, pleasure, joy, etc. This is called an *interjection*. The interjections in the following sentences are italicized:

Oh, what sharp lightning that was!
Pshaw! Why did you do that?
Alas! How his poor mother grieved over him.
Hurrah! hurrah! We won the race.
Hush! The bugle is sounding a call.

48. Definition.—An **interjection** is a word that expresses strong feeling or emotion.

49. Some of the interjections commonly used are: *Hullo, ah, bah, pooh, whew, fire, hurrah, pshaw, aha, lo, hark, oh, O, alas, hush, ha, bravo.*

50. In written or printed matter an interjection is usually followed by an exclamation point (!), unless the interjection begins an expression that should be followed by an exclamation point. Then a comma is generally written after the interjection; as, *Oh, how it snowed!*

The use of *O* and *oh* should be carefully distinguished. *O* should always be a capital letter and the exclamation point should never be placed immediately after it. Thus, *O come and see how well he looks!*, not *O! come and see how well he looks!*

REMARKS

51. A Word May Be Used as Several Parts of Speech.—There are many words that may be used as several different parts of speech, and in order to determine the class to which they belong it is necessary to see how they are used in connection with other words. For example, the word *act* may be both a noun and a verb. It is a verb in the sentence, *Act quickly,* and a noun in the sentence, *That was a cautious act.* Likewise, the word *back* is a noun in *He turned his back on us;* an adverb in *Come back;* an adjective in *the back numbers;* and a verb in the sentence, *Back the wagon out.*

In the following sentences, note that in each the use of the italicized word determines what part of speech it is, and this is indicated in parenthesis at the end of the sentence.

You must pay a *fine* of ten dollars. (Noun)

They will *fine* you for exceeding the speed limit. (Part of verb will fine)

There is *fine* sand in that sugar. (Adjective)

He found an *iron* cross. (Adjective)

That *iron* is very valuable. (Noun)

You must *iron* these clothes. (Part of the verb must iron)

We can see a *light* in the window. (Noun)
Light the gas in the hall. (Verb)
Your dress is very *light*. (Adjective)
That is a *fast* horse. (Adjective)
That horse is running very *fast*. (Adverb)

Words are usually classed, especially in dictionaries, according to the functions that they most commonly perform. Thus, *horse* is classed as a noun, because its most common office is to serve as the name of an animal. When, however, we say, *a horse car, a horse road,* we make an adjective of the word, because we use it to modify a noun. In a similar manner, *iron, gold, book, servant* are adjectives when employed in such expressions as *an iron bridge, a gold watch, a book agent, a servant girl.*

52. Words Understood.—Words are often so clearly implied in sentences that they need not be expressed. In the case of imperative sentences, as previously explained, the subject is nearly always understod. For example, in *Take your seat,* the subject *you* is understood. In the answers to questions, parts of sentences are often omitted. When, to the question, *Do you see him?* a person answers, *I do,* he means *I do see him.* The real predicate of the sentence *I do* is, therefore, *do see him,* consisting of the verb *do see* (which is merely an emphatic form of *see*) and the pronoun *him.*

In the following additional examples, the words understood are enclosed in marks of parenthesis:

I shall not do it. Why (will you) not (do it)?
We are not so clever as you (are clever).
This, if (it is) true, is disgraceful.
You may not have been there, but I have (been there).

CLASSIFYING WORDS

53. Directions.—Read carefully what is said regarding Opportunity in Exercise XV. Then make a list of the italicized words, and tell what part of speech each one is.

Examples.—
opportunity—noun.
frequently—adverb.

EXERCISE XV

OPPORTUNITY

Lack of *opportunity* is the lack that people most *frequently* bewail. The man who is less successful *than* his neighbor usually *believes* that his neighbor has had better opportunities than he. The woman who is discontented *with* her life, *because* it seems to consist mainly of *household* drudgery, sighs for the opportunities of those who have more *freedom* from *domestic* cares. Men and women alike who are always finding it hard to make ends meet, *envy* the prosperous *their* opportunities quite as much as their *possessions*.

Yet those at whose door opportunity *seldom* knocks and on *whom* it bestows only the most *grudging* gifts may still cherish some *consolatory* reflections. Opportunity never presents itself to any one as a wholly munificent fairy; it always *manages* to exact some *sacrifice* for the benefits or *advantages* that it *promises* to confer. And usually the sacrifice is more *or* less commensurate with the opportunity. The man who laments the rut in *which* he must travel finds when the opportunity to struggle out of it occurs that *disturbing* consequences follow: breaking of ties that on being threatened take on a sudden new value; *acceptance* of responsibilities that on being offered take a new formidableness. Opportunity does *not* say in so many words, "*Accept* me, and *root* up the old affections"; *its* menace to the old affections is insidious. The *step* upward means nearly always a step *away* from the old associates and the old associations. The man *who ascends* may do his best to hold fast to those whom he leaves *behind;* but he cannot raise *them* all with him, and his ascent *may expose* him to the criticism, censure, or *suspicion* of former friends. So *many* deterrent considerations are suggested in the advances that opportunity makes that every *one* can well appreciate the *remark* of a successful man: "I *believe* that some of my *unhappiest* times were *those* when I *was given* a chance to get ahead."

Yet if we are ambitious to get ahead we will be ever *on* the alert to recognize and grasp real opportunities as they are presented to *us*. The man who does just enough to keep his name on the *pay* roll, *will find himself* on the ragged *edge* at sixty.

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 11)

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

CLASSES OF NOUNS

1. Any word or expression used in speech or in writing as the name of something is a **noun.** Nouns are divided into two great classes—*common* and *proper.*

2. Common Nouns.—Most of the nouns in the English language are class names—names applied in common to classes of things, each class being made up of objects of the same kind; that is, to objects having common qualities. Thus the word *boy* is not the name given to one particular thing and to no other; it is the name of any one of a great class of persons. *Book, stone, girl, dog, wood, tree,* each is a name given to any one of the class having certain common qualities. Such nouns are termed COMMON NOUNS.

3. Proper Nouns.—Frequently the mere class name points out with sufficient definiteness the thing to which we desire to refer. But this is not always satisfactory. We may wish to send a letter, some money, or a package to some person living and moving among thousands of other persons in some great city. In such cases, the class name would be of little use, for it would be necessary to distinguish the one particular person or thing from every other. This can best be done by using a name given *only* to that person or thing; as, *Chicago, Woodrow Wilson, Massachusetts, Florence Nightingale, England.* Such names are PROPER NOUNS.

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

In both writing and printing, a proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

4. Definition.—A **common noun** is a noun used to name a class of things.

5. Definition.—A **proper noun** is a noun used to mark or distinguish some particular person, place, or thing.

6. Collective and Verbal Nouns. — *Collective* and *verbal* are two other terms used in classifying nouns. **Collective nouns** are those like *army, herd, flock, jury, team,* which name collections or groups. They cannot be applied to individual persons or objects, but always refer to the groups of objects as a unit. For example, the word *army* refers to a large class of *soldiers,* but it relates to them as a unit or body; it cannot be applied to merely *one soldier.* The word *herd* refers to a number of *cows;* it cannot be used in speaking of only *one cow.* Other examples of collective nouns are:

Crowd, bunch, swarm, congress, assembly, tribe, family, regiment, covey, crew, club, band, fleet, navy, school, gang.

A **verbal noun,** as the name suggests, is a noun derived from some verb, such as *walking* and *singing,* which are derived from the verbs *walk* and *sing,* respectively. Such nouns always name actions, just as *tree* and *stone* name objects. In the following sentences, the expressions in Italics are verbal nouns:

Walking is fine exercise.
Her *singing* pleased the boys.
Sewing, cooking, and *dressmaking* are now taught in many schools.

7. Nouns are usually easily recognized, and seldom is it difficult to tell the class to which a noun belongs. Occasionally, however, some thought is necessary in order to distinguish between common and proper nouns. The following will help you to make this distinction:

1. The names of the seasons, *spring, summer, autumn* or *fall,* and *winter,* are common nouns.

2. The names of the sciences, diseases, drugs, etc. are usually regarded as common. Some of these are:

Sciences: Mathematics, physics, geology, chemistry, biology.
Diseases: Measles, pneumonia, typhoid fever, mumps, bronchitis.
Drugs: Camphor, quinine, bromine.

3. The words *North, South, East,* and *West* when used to name sections of a country are proper nouns; when used to denote mere direction, they are common nouns.

Proper Noun: He came from the *West.*
Common Noun: The sun sets in the *west.*

4. Collective nouns are usually common nouns; as, *mob, audience, gang.* Sometimes a collective noun is used as the special name applied to some *company, crew,* etc. Then it becomes a proper noun and should be written with an initial capital.

Common Nouns:
The *crew* practiced all through the summer months.
They sent a large *company* to the camp.
Proper Nouns:
The *Yale Crew* won the race.
You must recruit *Company F* to full strength.

5. Many nouns name qualities, conditions, traits, or feelings. These are regarded as common nouns. The words *thoughtfulness, rudeness, bravery, wisdom, truth, stupidity, honesty, drowsiness, purity, manhood, cleanliness,* are nouns of this kind.

CLASSIFYING NOUNS

8. Directions.—Make a list of the nouns in Exercise I and classify each noun as proper, common, collective, or verbal.

EXAMPLES.—
Today—common.
United States—proper.

EXERCISE I

Today the United States is the most important manufacturer of furniture in the world. It has the control of the domestic market, and is also the greatest exporter of this product, which is sent to all parts of the civilized world. The present value of our annual furniture production is about twice the value of the 1899 product. The greatest increase in business has taken place in states of large population—New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The

superior character of the wood in certain parts of these last two states is largely responsible for their standing in the industry. Grand Rapids, Michigan, for example, is a very important center for furniture manufacture, although its population is small. The cities which figure most prominently in the manufacture of furniture are Chicago, New York, Grand Rapids, Philadelphia, and St. Louis. The states whose products have the greatest value are New York, Illinois, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Wisconsin.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

9. Pronouns are words used as substitutes for nouns, and, like nouns, are used in different ways. Hence, they also are divided into different classes. These classes are *personal, interrogative, demonstrative, indefinite,* and *relative.*

10. Personal Pronouns.—The personal pronoun is one used in place of the name of a person or thing. For instance, in the sentence, *I have lost some money,* the pronoun *I* takes the place of the name of the speaker; in, *You have a beautiful rose, you* is substituted for the name of the person spoken to; while in, *He has many friends, he* is used instead of the name of the person spoken of.

Note the forms of the personal pronouns:

(1) A pronoun that denotes the speaker is a pronoun of the **first person.** *I, my, mine, me, we, our, ours, us,* are personal pronouns of the first person.

(2) A pronoun that denotes the person or thing spoken to is a pronoun of the **second person.** The personal pronouns of the second person are *you, your, yours.* The following forms of the pronouns of the second person are seldom used: *thou, thy, thine, thee.*

(3) A pronoun that denotes the person or thing spoken of is a pronoun of the **third person.** *He, his, him, she, her, hers, it, its, they, their, theirs, them,* are personal pronouns of the third person.

11. Definition.—Pronouns that show by their form whether they refer to the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of are **personal pronouns.**

EXAMPLES.—

I did not see *her* coming.
We went to *their* home last evening.
When *he* came, *he* told *us his* story.
I enjoy *my* work.
They called to *us* as *we* left *your* house.

12. Nouns, like pronouns, may be used to refer in meaning to any of the three persons, but unlike pronouns they do not change their form to indicate person. Nouns are usually in the third person. They are in the first person only when they name the speaker, and are in the second person only when they name the person spoken to.

I, your *foreman,* will show you how to do this work.
I told YOU, *John,* as soon as I could find you.

In the first sentence, the noun *foreman* shows who is meant by *I,* the speaker. Therefore, *foreman* is in the first person. In the second sentence, *John* indicates who is meant by *you,* the person addressed. Hence, *John* is a noun in the second person.

In the following sentences all the nouns are in the third person:

Bring the *book* to me.
That small *car* belongs to my *brother.*
The *cart* in the *yard* is full of *dirt.*
The *men* went aboard the *battleship.*

13. Interrogative Pronouns.—Interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions. They are *who, what,* and *which;* as in, *Who* went with her? *What* did you say? *Which* shall I take? *Who* refers to persons, *what* refers to things, while *which* may refer to either persons or things. *Whose* and *whom* are forms of *who.* Note the correct use of the interrogative pronouns in the following sentences:

Who is singing?
Whose child is he?
For *whom* did you buy the flowers?
What has he done to offend you?
Which is the better rug?

What and *which* are frequently used as adjectives and care should be taken to distinguish between their use as interrogative pronouns and their use as adjectives. When one of these

words is immediately followed by a noun that it modifies, it is an adjective. When it takes the place of a noun, it is a pronoun.

What shall I do? *Pronoun.*
What story shall I tell to you? *Adjective.*
Which is yours? *Pronoun.*
Which car shall I buy? *Adjective.*

14. Demonstrative Pronouns.—There are but four demonstrative pronouns, *this, that, these,* and *those.* These words are called **demonstrative** because they are used to point out or designate. *This* and *these* usually refer to something near at hand or recently mentioned; *that* and *those* refer to things more remote in position or in thought. Note their use in the following sentences:

This is my book.
That was not your brother.
These are very fine apples.
Those are the flowers I want.

Frequently these words are used as adjectives, so that you must distinguish between their pronominal function, or function as pronouns, and their adjective function. If they take the place of a noun, they are pronouns. If they are immediately followed by some noun that they modify, they are adjectives.

This is a very interesting story. *Pronoun.*
This story is very interesting. *Adjective.*
These are poor potatoes. *Pronoun.*
These potatoes are poor. *Adjective.*

Two errors in the use of demonstratives are common. Many use the adjectives *this, that, these,* and *those* incorrectly, and say, *These kind, those sort,* etc. The correct forms are *This kind, that kind, this sort, that sort.* The other error consists in substituting the personal pronoun *them* for the demonstrative adjective. Never use such expressions as *them girls, them stories.* Say *those girls, those stories.*

15. Indefinite Pronouns.—There are a number of pronouns that do not stand for particular persons or things, but merely point out indefinitely, and hence are called **indefinite pronouns.** Illustrations of such pronouns occur in, ALL

decided to go; NEITHER *of the brothers would help;* BOTH *of the cities have increased rapidly in population and wealth.*

Some of the words commonly used as indefinite pronouns are: *all, both, each, neither, any, another, much, many, several, one, more, none, other, some, few.* Most of these words, like the demonstratives, may be used either as pronouns or as adjectives.

Some came too late to see the game. *Pronoun.*
Some boys are very disobedient. *Adjective.*
Few appreciate what he has done. *Pronoun.*
Few persons care to go there often. *Adjective.*

16. Relative Pronouns.—In the sentence, *Mary lent the book that her brother gave to her,* the clause *that her brother gave to her* is connected to the preceding part of the sentence by the word *that,* which refers, or relates, to the noun *book* in the first part of the sentence. The word *that* is called a **relative pronoun** because it shows the relation between its antecedent, *book,* and the clause it introduces. The words commonly used as relative pronouns are: *who, which, that,* and *what,* and *whose* and *whom,* forms of *who.* These words are also compounded with the words *ever* and *soever,* to form the compound relative pronouns *whoever, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever.*

I do not know *who* told her.
The house in *which* he lived was very old.
Show her the book *that* you bought.
Send her the magazine *that* is on my desk.
This is the best bargain *that* we have offered this year.
Man cannot cover *what* God would reveal.
The man replied, "I sold only *what* was my own."
I do not know *whose* it is.
Mary is a friend upon *whom* you may rely.
He is a man *whom* everybody admires.
Whoever lives a life of truth need fear no criticism.

17. Who, Which, or That.—The relative pronoun *who* is used to refer to persons; *which* refers to things, while *that* may refer to either persons or things. *That* should not be used after a preposition and cannot be used with the meaning *and*

she, and he, and it. Note the following sentences in which these relative pronouns are used correctly.

John, *who* is my assistant, will help you.
I met a woman, *who* kindly told me where you live.
Where is the package *that* I sent to you?
Here is the boy *to whom* I referred.
The house for *which* this was made, burned down last week.
Those potatoes *which* you dug yesterday, are for sale.
She is the girl *that* I was talking about.
This is the best bargain *that* we have ever offered you.
The club to *which* I belong is very popular.
The concert *that* I enjoyed most was given last week.
Those are beautiful maple trees *that* shade the lawn.
Mrs. Arnon, *whom* to know is to love, was hostess.
The road bordered the Blue Juniata *whose* limpid waters charmed us.
We know Ralph *whose* father was our neighbor.

18. Position of the Relative Pronoun.—In order to prevent lack of clearness in a sentence, a relative pronoun should be placed as near its antecedent as possible. The meaning of the following sentence is not clear because of the position of the relative pronoun *which:*

A little brown thrush sprang up from the bush *which* had been flooding the garden with song.

The relative pronoun *which* refers to the noun *thrush* and should be placed near this noun. The correct arrangement is:

A little brown thrush, *which* had been flooding the garden with song, sprang up from the bush.

The following additional examples show the correct and incorrect position of the relative pronoun:

Incorrect	*Correct*
The MEANING was perfectly clear *that* he intended to convey.	The MEANING *that* he intended to convey, was perfectly clear.
Thus far the MAN has not been found by the police *who* has been frightening the children.	Thus far the MAN *who* has been frightening the children, has not been found by the police.

CLASSIFYING PRONOUNS

19. Directions.—Mention each pronoun in the sentences in Exercise II and tell about each pronoun whether it is personal, interrogative, demonstrative, indefinite, or relative.

EXERCISE II

1. Whom did you see today?
2. I saw the train pass him before he reached the station.
3. She gave her brother my new book.
4. We went to the shop with our father, but we had to leave him at the entrance.
5. When the men that asked my father for a half holiday were granted their request, all seemed much pleased.
6. The new dress that you bought last Friday is exceedingly becoming to you.
7. Who saw the merchant drop his pocketbook?
8. Our neighbor, whose note was protested at the bank, has ample means; but it is tied up in his numerous investments.
9. These were the strong points in his favor: He listened to all that was said to him; he tried immediately to do what he was told to do; and he never gave up until he had tried every possible means of obtaining results.
10. Both of them came early but neither stayed late.

SUPPLYING PRONOUNS IN SENTENCES

20. Directions.—Copy the sentences in Exercise III, filling the blanks with suitable pronouns.

EXAMPLE.—

If ——— sell ——— house, ——— may regret ———.

If you sell your house, you may regret it.

EXERCISE III

1. ——— were surprised when ——— found that the train had gone.
2. ——— have been unable to find out ——— told ——— that ——— did ———.
3. The street on ——— ——— live has many beautiful trees.
4. If ——— is ——— friend, ——— will come to ——— assistance.
5. The foreman told ——— helper to show ——— work to the superintendent so that ——— might judge ——— quality.
6. Does not ——— typewriter need cleaning before ——— write this letter for ———?
7. The loveliest, saddest bird ——— ever saw, was a chickadee ——— had lost ——— mate.

8. The influence of ——— form of government, with ——— ideals of freedom and equal opportunity for ———, has not alone allowed ——— ——— were here to live out ——— lives under a liberty greater than men have ever enjoyed before, but ——— has attracted to ——— men and women with mind and heart enough to appreciate and want such liberty.

9. Mr. Adams was the lawyer upon ——— ——— relied.

10.

Gross and Isaacs
Wholesale Jobbers
Rooms 263–267
143 Liberty Street

New York, May 19, 1920.

Spitz and Lowenberg,
Allentown, Pa.
Gentlemen:

——— have ——— letter of May 13th, in which ——— say that ——— can handle some men's clothing, furnishings, and underwear.

——— are sending ——— today, via L. V. R. R., eight cases as per enclosed Inv. and B/L. ——— is a job lot that ——— bought a few days ago at a bargain, and ——— turn ——— over to ——— on a small margin of profit to ———. Please note ——— very low prices. ——— hope the goods will suit ——— trade and feel confident that ——— will have no trouble in disposing of ——— at a good profit on these figures.

——— will allow ——— three months' time or five per cent. for cash in ten days. If ——— prefer, ——— may sell ——— on a commission of twenty-five per cent.

As soon as ——— have inspected these goods let ——— know how ——— suit ——— and which way ——— prefer to handle ———.

——— truly,

Gross and Isaacs.

INFLECTION

21. A word may change its form to show changes in its use or meaning. The noun *dog* may become *dogs* to indicate more than one dog; it may become *dog's* or *dogs'* to show that the dog possesses something, as *the dog's collar, the dogs' masters.* The noun *hero,* which refers to a person of the male sex, may become *heroine,* to show that a woman or girl is meant. The verb *play* may become *played* or *will play* to denote a difference in time. Changes in the form of pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may also be made to show changes in their meanings and uses.

22. Definition.—The change made in the form of a word to denote some change in its meaning or use is termed **inflection.**

23. Number in Nouns.—Nouns frequently change their forms to show that reference is made to more than one of the things named.

The *apple* is very sweet.
The *apples* are very sweet.

The word *apple* in the first sentence means a single object, while the word *apples* in the second sentence names more than one. The change in the number is shown by the addition of the letter *s*. The nouns *bag, girl, book, pencil, store, paper,* each denotes more than one when changed to the forms *bags, girls, books, pencils, stores, papers.*

24. Definition.—A noun that denotes only one person, place, or thing is said to be in the **singular number.**

EXAMPLES.—

boy	folio	valley	chief
horse	piano	turkey	safe
cargo	lady	beef	foot
potato	pony	wife	child

25. Definition.—A noun that denotes more than one person, place, or thing is said to be in the **plural number.**

EXAMPLES.—

boys	folios	valleys	chiefs
horses	pianos	turkeys	safes
cargoes	ladies	beeves	feet
potatoes	ponies	wives	children

SOME RULES FOR FORMING THE PLURALS OF NOUNS

26. Plurals Formed by Adding *s*.—Most nouns form their plural by adding *s* to the singular.

EXAMPLES.—

		1		
Singular:	horse	king	soldier	steeple
Plural:	horses	kings	soldiers	steeples

2

Nouns Ending in o

Singular:	folio	piano	studio	broncho
Plural:	folios	pianos	studios	bronchos
Singular:	solo	soprano	cameo	halo
Plural:	solos	sopranos	cameos	halos

3

Nouns Ending in y *after a Vowel Sound*

Singular:	way	play	key	donkey	attorney
Plural:	ways	plays	keys	donkeys	attorneys

4

Nouns Ending in f *or* fe

Singular:	chief	fife	safe	roof	muff
Plural:	chiefs	fifes	safes	roofs	muffs
Singular:	hoof	scarf	cliff	reef	handkerchief
Plural:	hoofs	scarfs	cliffs	reefs	handkerchiefs

27. Plurals Formed by Adding *es*.—Some nouns form their plural by adding *es* to the singular.

EXAMPLES.—

1

Nouns Ending in o

Singular:	cargo	hero	negro	veto	volcano
Plural:	cargoes	heroes	negroes	vetoes	volcanoes

2

Nouns Ending in y *after a Consonant, Change* y *to* i *and Add* es

Singular:	pony	lady	berry	lily	folly
Plural:	ponies	ladies	berries	lilies	follies

3

Nouns Ending in the Sound of s, x z, sh, *or* ch, *add* es, *the* es *Making Another Syllable*

Singular:	fuss	box	adz	bush	church
Plural:	fusses	boxes	adzes	bushes	churches

4

Fifteen Nouns Ending in f *or* fe *Change* f *or* fe *to* v *Before Adding the* es

Singular:	wife	beef	half	calf	thief
Plural:	wives	beeves	halves	calves	thieves

Others are *knife, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, staff, wharf, wolf, life.*

28. Irregular Plurals.—A few nouns form the plural by changing the vowel *within* the word.

Singular:	man	woman	mouse	dormouse
Plural:	men	women	mice	dormice
Singular:	foot	goose	louse	tooth
Plural:	feet	geese	lice	teeth

29. *Letters, signs,* and *characters* form the plural by adding the *apostrophe* and *s* (*'s*). The same rule applies to combinations of letters used as abbreviations.

EXAMPLES.—

Dot your i's and cross your t's.
He makes his +'s like ×'s and his 3's like 8's.
M. D.'s and D. D.'s.

30. A few nouns have the same form for both numbers.

EXAMPLES.—

Singular:	deer	trout	sheep	swine
Plural:	deer	trout	sheep	swine
Singular:	alms	bellows	means	odds
Plural:	alms	bellows	means	odds

Others are *vermin, hose, shad, cattle, cannon, salmon, Chinese, heathen.*

31. Three nouns end the plural form in *en.*

Singular:	ox	child	brother
Plural:	oxen	children	brethren

32. The plurals of *compound words* and *groups of words* are formed quite irregularly. The student must observe each example as he meets it in his reading. Study the following plural forms:

armfuls	mouse-traps	forget-me-nots
stepsons	menservants	fathers-in-law
stepchildren	men-of-war	major generals
lookers-on	teaspoonfuls	postmasters-general

the two Professor Johnsons
the Doctors Leverett, *or* Doctors Leverett
the Mrs. Browns
the Newton brothers
the Misses Adams, *or* the Miss Adamses

33. Some nouns have two plurals. The plurals in such cases have different meanings.

brothers { brothers (of a family) / brethren (of the same society)

die { dies (for stamping) / dice (for gaming)

horse { horses (animals) / horse (cavalry)

fish { fishes (separate fish) / fish (collectively)

penny { pennies (separate coins) / pence (sum of money)

genius { geniuses (persons of great ability) / genii (spirits)

34. It will be seen from the foregoing that while the plural form of many nouns is determined by some rule, there are many others whose plurals are not formed according to rule. The most practical way of mastering the plural form in such cases is through observation and by reference to the dictionary. Most of the irregular plurals are given in the dictionary immediately after the singular form of the noun. Therefore, when there is any doubt concerning the plural form of a noun, a dictionary should be consulted.

35. Number in Pronouns.—Pronouns, unlike nouns, have no rules for the formation of their plurals. *I, my, me, he, his, him, she, her, hers, it,* and *its* are singular pronouns; *we, our, ours, us, they, their, theirs,* and *them* are always plural. *You, your,* and *yours* may be either singular or plural, their number depending upon their use in the sentence.

36. Agreement in Number.—A common source of error is disagreement in number. The pronouns, *they, their, theirs,* and *them* are plural, but are frequently incorrectly used to refer to some noun in the singular, as in *Every clerk must do their own work.* The singular noun *clerk* is the antecedent of the pronoun and requires a singular pronoun to refer to it. The correct form is *Every clerk must do his own work.* The pronouns *their* and *them* are wrong in *Each person in the office had their vacation before I had mine; If anyone comes, tell them to wait for me. His* and *him* should be used.

The pronoun *you* when used as a subject always requires a verb in the plural form. Never say, *You was, Was you,* etc. *You were, Were you* are the correct forms.

Incorrect Forms	*Correct Forms*
Either Mary or Sarah lost *their* gloves.	Either Mary or Sarah lost *her* gloves.
Has either of the stenographers finished *their* work?	Has either of the stenographers finished *her* work?
Some man or boy left *their* umbrella.	Some man or boy left *his* umbrella.
Neither the carpenter nor the plumber brought *their* tools.	Neither the carpenter nor the plumber brought *his* tools.
No boy need expect to leave before *their* work is completed.	No boy need expect to leave before *his* work is completed.
Was you at home yesterday?	*Were* you at home yesterday?
John said you *was* sick.	John said you *were* sick.
Every one should try to give pleasure to those about *them*.	Every one should try to give pleasure to those about *him*.

USING PLURAL FORMS IN SENTENCES

37. Directions.—Write sentences containing the plural forms of the nouns and the pronouns in Exercise IV.

EXERCISE IV

1. hero
2. foot
3. negro
4. manservant
5. I
6. father-in-law
7. child
8. deer
9. bench
10. factory
11. he
12. tax
13. Miss Brown
14. fish
15. valley

CORRECTING ERRORS IN SENTENCES

38. Directions.—Each sentence in Exercise V contains one or more errors. Determine what are these errors and then write the correct forms of the sentences.

EXAMPLE.—

1. Will anyone lend me his pencil?

EXERCISE V

1. Will anyone lend me their pencil?
2. The services have been very helpful that you rendered me.
3. We went west last Summer but we expect to go to the south this Winter.

4. These kind of tools are very poor.
5. The men which were in the bank tried to rob the cashier.
6. The man crossed the street that had been standing on the corner.
7. The sheeps and the cattles were grazing in the large meadow.
8. On applying for a position each applicant will receive a blank that they must fill out correctly.
9. Was you able to go to town today?
10. Either the chauffeur or the passenger left their coat in the car.

GENDER

39. Gender of Nouns.—Gender is the quality of nouns and pronouns that indicates the sex or the lack of sex of the person or thing denoted. Nouns and pronouns that denote persons or animals of the male sex are in the **masculine gender;** as, *boy, man, lion, actor, he, him.* Those designating the female sex are in the **feminine gender;** as, *girl, woman, lioness, actress, she, her.* Those referring to things without sex are in the **neuter gender.** Words of this kind are *book, stone, hat, coat, house, face, office, it, its.*

In nouns, gender is of little importance, as usually there is but little difficulty in determining readily the gender of any word, and in many instances the same form of the word is used for either the masculine or the feminine gender. The only regular inflection is the addition of the syllable *ess, ine, ina, trix,* or *a* to certain masculine nouns to form the feminine. The following are words of this kind:

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
lion	lioness	executor	executrix
actor	actress	administrator	administratrix
heir	heiress	testator	testatrix
prince	princess	signor	signora
tiger	tigress	sultan	sultana
hero	heroine	Justin	Justina
czar	czarina	Christian	Christina

Many words show by their meaning the gender to which they belong. *Boy, father, husband, king, man, bull, brother, nephew, rooster,* always denote the male sex and are in the masculine gender. *Girl, mother, wife, queen, woman, cow, sister, niece, hen,* always denote the female sex and are in the feminine gender.

When it is not important to mark the distinction of sex, the tendency at the present time is to omit the feminine inflections. It is not considered good form now to use the terms *authoress, poetess, songstress.* Refer to a woman as to a man, as an *author,* a *poet,* a *singer,* a *lecturer,* a *doctor,* a *waiter,* or a *chairman.*

40. Gender of Pronouns.—Certain personal pronouns always indicate some particular sex or gender. These are: MASCULINE: *he, his, him;* FEMININE: *she, her, hers;* NEUTER: *it, its.*

41. Agreement in Gender.—The gender of a pronoun should always agree with the gender of the noun to which it refers; that is, with the gender of its antecedent. Use *he, his,* or *him* to refer to persons or animals of the male sex; use *she, her,* or *hers* to refer to the female sex, and *it* or *its* to refer to things without sex.

EXAMPLES.—

The BOY has lost *his* ball. (Boy–his masculine)

The KING said *he* would rule the people with justice. (King–he masculine)

That WOMAN told him that *she* finds *her* work difficult. (Woman–she–her feminine)

The LIONESS loves *her* young. (Lioness–her feminine)

The STORE has had *its* annual white sale. (Store–its neuter)

When I saw the BALL, *it* was in the hall. (Ball–it neuter)

As previously stated, certain nouns may refer to either sex. When such a noun is used, it is customary to refer to it by a pronoun of the masculine gender if there is nothing in the expressed thought to show the sex of the object; as, *If any one needs more time, let him hold up his hand; Have every singer bring his book.*

DETERMINING THE GENDER OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

42. Directions.—Make a list of the nouns and the pronouns in the selection in Exercise VI and mention the gender of each noun and each pronoun.

EXERCISE VI

The United States probably has more libraries than any other country. In fact, so important are libraries in helping the people overcome ignorance that the towns that do not have a good library are avoided by men who want their boys and girls to have every possible opportunity. It is only around the school, the church, and the library that the right kind of American villages and towns can be built up. The key to success and happiness can often be found on the shelves of the library. Many a young man who works during the day spends his evenings in some library. He is hungry to know what the world is doing and what the great men of the past have done. The books at his command are almost numberless, so that he can read about any subject in which he is interested. He is overcoming ignorance and is sure to succeed.

CASE

CASE OF NOUNS

43. Consider carefully the following sentences:

The *girl* plays well.
The boy struck the little *girl*.
The *girl's* doll has been broken.

In these sentences the word *girl* bears different relations to the other words in the sentences. In the first sentence, the noun *girl* is the subject and denotes the person concerning whom something is said, or the one who is doing something; in the second sentence, the noun *girl* is the object of the verb *struck* and denotes the person to whom something is done; in the third sentence, the word *girl's* shows by its form that the girl owns or possesses something. These three sentences show three different ways in which nouns may be related to other words in sentences.

44. Definition.—The relation that a noun bears to some other word in a sentence is termed its **case.**

The three cases commonly considered in English are the *nominative* case, the *objective* case, and the *possessive* case.

NOMINATIVE CASE

45. The Nominative Case of Nouns.—The nominative case is used in several different relations to other words, its chief uses being as follows: (1) *As the subject of a verb;* (2) *as a predicate noun;* (3) *in address;* (4) *in apposition with another nominative.*

1. *Subject of a Verb.*—The chief use of the nominative case is as the SUBJECT OF A VERB. The subject denotes that about which the rest of the sentence tells, asks, or commands something.

The *flowers* have faded.
A heavy *rain* has fallen.
Did *John* leave immediately?
Will the *girl* go with us?

2. *Predicate Noun.*—Certain verbs are followed by nouns that complete the meaning of the verbs and denote the same person or thing as their subjects. Nouns used in this way are called PREDICATE NOUNS. In the sentence, *He is a brave man,* the noun *man* completes the meaning of the verb *is* and denotes the same person as the subject *he; man* is therefore a predicate noun. This construction often occurs after the various forms of the verb *be* (*is, are, was, were, shall be, has been,* etc.) and after the verbs *seem, become, appear.*

Thomas Edison is a great *inventor.*
John is the *captain.*
He appeared a *gentleman* in all his actions.
The diamond is a precious *stone.*
He became *judge* a short time ago.
She seems an honest *woman.*

In these sentences the same person or thing is denoted by each of the following pairs of words: *Thomas Edison, inventor; John, captain; he, gentleman; diamond, stone; he, judge; she, woman.* The verb placed between each pair unites them so as to form an assertion. Each of the words following, or completing, the verb is a predicate noun, and therefore is in the nominative case.

3. *In Address.*—A noun is often used to represent some person that is spoken to, or addressed. A word of this kind is

used independently in the sentence in which it occurs; that is, it is unnecessary to the grammatical completeness of the sentence. It is regarded as a NOUN INDEPENDENT BY DIRECT ADDRESS and is always in the nominative case. In the following sentences, the words *boatman, children, James, Rose,* are nouns having this use.

Boatman, do not tarry.
Children, study your lessons.
James, bring me that money.
Rose, get out of my way.

4. *In Apposition With Another Nominative.*—A noun used for the purpose of explaining or describing that which is denoted by another noun is said to be in APPOSITION with the word it explains. Words that are in apposition with each other denote exactly the same person or thing and are in the same case. Therefore, a noun that is in apposition with a word in the nominative case is also in the nominative case. In the sentence, *Cæsar, the conqueror, subdued many countries,* the noun *conqueror* is added to expand the meaning of the noun *Cæsar.* It denotes the same person as the noun it explains but it is used to tell more definitely who is meant by this noun. Since *Cæsar* is in the nominative case, *conqueror* also is in this case. Note the appositive nouns in the following sentences:

EDWARD, the king's eldest *son,* was slain.
"HIAWATHA," a very pretty *poem,* was written by Longfellow.
The leader was DANIEL BOONE, the *pioneer* of Kentucky.
MARY, my *child,* come here immediately.

It must not be inferred that all appositive nouns are in the nominative case. Words are sometimes in apposition with nouns that are in the objective case.

OBJECTIVE CASE

46. The Objective Case of Nouns.—The objective case also has several different relations that it bears to other words. The following are the chief uses of this case: (1) *As the direct object of a verb;* (2) *as the indirect object of a*

verb; (3) *as the object of a preposition;* (4) *in apposition with another objective.*

1. *Direct Object.*—Many verbs require nouns or pronouns after them to complete their meaning and to receive the action that they express. A word used in this way answers the question *What?* or *Whom?* with regard to the verb it follows and is the DIRECT OBJECT of the verb. In the sentence, *The frost killed the flowers,* the noun *flowers* answers the question *What?* with regard to the verb *killed* and is the object of this verb. It, therefore, is in the objective case. Note the nouns of this case in the following sentences:

HAVE you CAUGHT any *fish?*
The audience APPLAUDED the *speaker.*
The man ACQUIRED great *fame.*
We FOUND some beautiful *roses.*

2. *Indirect Object.*—Sometimes a verb that is completed by a direct object is also followed by a word that is the object of the preposition *to* or *for* understood. Such a word is called the INDIRECT OBJECT and denotes the person toward whom the action expressed by the verb is directed. For example, in the sentence, *The foreman paid the men their wages,* besides the noun *wages,* which is the direct object of the verb *paid,* there is another object, the noun *men.* The word *men* denotes the persons to whom the wages were paid—the persons toward whom the action expressed by the verb *paid* was directed—and is the object of the preposition *to* understood. *Men* is therefore an *indirect object* in this sentence, and is in the objective case. As shown in this example, the indirect object generally precedes the direct object.

The direct objects in the following sentences are printed in small capitals and the indirect objects in Italic:

Mary sent her *aunt* a BASKET of flowers.
He told the *children* a STORY.
I paid the *clerk* the PRICE of the article.
They gave the *man* explicit DIRECTIONS.

3. *Object of a Preposition.*—A noun that follows a preposition as the OBJECT OF THE PREPOSITION is always in the objective case. In the following sentences, the objects of the prepositions are printed in Italic:

I stood on the *bridge* at *midnight.*
He was the captain of the football *team.*
We waited patiently on the *bank* of the *river.*
They spoke to *Mary* concerning the *matter.*

4. *In Apposition.*—A noun in APPOSITION with a word in the objective case is in the objective case also. In *He lectured on Longfellow, the author of Evangeline,* the noun *author* is in apposition with the noun *Longfellow,* for it is used to describe the meaning of this noun and it refers to the same person. *Longfellow* is in the objective case because it is the object of the preposition *on. Author* also is in the objective case because an appositive noun is always in the same case as the word it explains.

The dog bit THOMAS, the *gardener.*
The child struck JOHN, his *brother.*
They went to New York, the *metropolis* of America.
He showed his GIFT, a *book.*

In these sentences *gardener, brother, metropolis,* and *book* refer to the same person or thing as the nouns *Thomas, John, New York,* and *gift.* They are in the objective case because the words to which they refer are in this case.

DETERMINING THE CASE OF NOUNS

47. Directions.—Tell the case and the use of each noun in Exercise VII.

EXERCISE VII

1. A pleasant well-shaded road led over the mountain.
2. The foreman, J. W. Angiers, told the men that the president would pay the wages they demanded.
3. Defend your country at all times, my boys.
4. When the engine broke down, the farmer sent his man, George Adams, to the city after new parts.
5. That woman in gray silk is my mother.

POSSESSIVE CASE

48. Frequently nouns and pronouns are used to denote possession, ownership, or source. Such nouns and pronouns are said to be in the POSSESSIVE CASE. Observe the following sentences:

Mr. Price's house has been rented.
The *dog's* collar is very valuable.
My hat is new.
Your coat has been torn.

In these sentences the words *Mr. Price's, dog's, my,* and *your* show that something is possessed or owned by some person or animal, and they are in the possessive case.

Sometimes the possessive form is used to denote authorship; as, *Wayland's Philosophy, Pope's "Essay on Man," Winston's Dictionary.*

The possessive form may be used to denote kind; as, *Women's suits; Men's shoes; Children's toys for sale here.*

49. Possessive Forms of Nouns.—1. The possessive form of a noun in the singular number is generally formed by adding an apostrophe (') and *s* to the noun.

EXAMPLES.—

SINGULAR	POSSESSIVE SINGULAR	
John	John's	John's new knife is lost.
Mary	Mary's	Mary's spring hat is torn.
boy	boy's	The boy's skates are dull.
child	child's	That child's cough is alarming.
horse	horse's	The horse's mane is tangled.
friend	friend's	My friend's dog will bite.
fly	fly's	The fly's wing is broken.
fox	fox's	A fox's footprints were seen.

2. The possessive form of a plural noun that ends in *s* is usually formed by adding an apostrophe (') only.

EXAMPLES.—

SIMPLE PLURAL	POSSESSIVE PLURAL	
boys	boys'	Boys' hats and caps were sold cheap.
friends	friends'	Our friends' visit was pleasant.
cats	cats'	The cats' yowling awakened us.
captains	captains'	The captains' uniforms have come.
girls	girls'	Girls' hats are grotesque in shape.

3. When the *simple plural* form of a noun does *not* end in *s*, the **possessive plural** is made by adding the apostrophe and *s*.

EXAMPLES.—

Simple Plural:	men	mice	children	brethren
Possessive Plural:	men's	mice's	children's	brethren's

The *men's* clothing will be sold at a discount.

Children's playthings mean much to them.

4. When *compound words* and *groups of words* are used together to denote possession, add the apostrophe and *s* to the last word only of the group. Such words and expressions are not usually written in the possessive *plural.*

EXAMPLES.—

my son-in-law's office
the Secretary of War's order
man-of-war's guns
some one else's hat
Charles and John's mother
Huxley & Youman's Physiology
the night watchman's care
Henry W. Longfellow's poems

When the combined nouns denote joint ownership, write the *'s* after the last name only; as, Hagen & Wagner's store. If separate ownership is intended, add *'s* to each name; as,

Donald's and Ruth's books were lost.

Henry's and John's skates are very good ones.

5. The possessive case is generally used with the names of persons and animals, but for nouns that denote inanimate objects, the phrase form is preferable. Thus, it is correct to say *the lion's roar, the man's work,* etc., but it is not customary to use such expressions as, *the book's cover, the door's handle, the house's roof, the clock's hands.* The better forms are *the cover of the book, the handle of the door, the roof of the house, the hands of the clock.*

6. In the case of a long expression, it is preferable to use a phrase instead of the possessive form. It is better to say *He was the guest of one of the railroad employes* than to use the awkward expression *He was one of the railroad employes' guests.* Also *This saw belongs to Spencer, the carpenter,* is better than *This is Spencer, the carpenter's, saw.*

CASE OF PRONOUNS

50. Case Forms.—Some personal, interrogative, and relative pronouns have distinctive forms for the different cases. These forms should be thoroughly memorized and care exer-

cised in their use, for errors in the case form of pronouns are frequent in the speech of those persons who have not mastered these forms. The case of the pronoun should be determined by the use of the pronoun in the sentence, and not by its antecedent. In the sentence *I saw him, him* is the object of the verb *saw* and the objective form *him* is required. In *The secret is between you and me, you* and *me* are the objects of the preposition *between,* and are in the objective case. The nominative form *I* would be incorrect after this preposition. In *It is I,* the pronoun *I* completes the meaning of the verb *is* and means the same person as the subject *it. I* is a predicate pronoun in the nominative case. Memorize the following case forms of the pronouns and be sure to use them correctly:

Nominative Case: I, we, you, thou, he, she, it, they, who.
Objective Case: Me, us, you, ye, him, her, it, them, whom.
Possessive Case: My, our, your, his, her, its, their, whose.

The pronouns *mine, ours, yours, thine, hers,* and *theirs* show possession by their form and are usually termed POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. They are not in the possessive case, for they are not immediately followed by some noun which they modify as is a pronoun in the possessive case. These possessives always have one of the uses of the nominative or the objective case.

Mine is not here. (Nominative case—subject of the verb *is*)
I like *hers* better than *yours.* (Objective case—objects of verbs)
This book is *yours.* (Nominative case—predicate pronoun after verb *is*)
We gave *ours* to father. (Objective case—object of the verb *gave*)
I do not care for *hers,* but I do like *yours.* (*Hers*—Objective case—object of preposition *for. Yours*—Objective case—object of verb *do like*)

51. Errors to Avoid in the Use of Pronouns.—A few of these forms are the same in both the nominative and the objective case, but *I, we, thou, he, she, they,* and *who* are properly used in the nominative case only. *Me, us, ye, him, them,* and *whom* are correct only when the objective case is required. *Her* may be used in either the possessive or the objective case, but should never be employed where the nominative case form is correct.

Especial care should be taken in using predicate pronouns after the various forms of the verb *be* (*am, is, are, was, were, have been,* etc.) Such errors as *It is me, It was them we saw,* are common. Be careful to use the nominative forms and say *It is I, It was they we saw.* Consider the correct and the incorrect forms in the following sentences and determine in each instance why the correct form is the proper one:

Incorrect	*Correct*
He told the story to Ben and *I.*	He told the story to Ben and *me.*
It is *her.*	It is *she.*
It is *him.*	It is *he.*
Her and *me* can go.	*She* and *I* can go.
Him and *her* saw the parade.	*He* and *she* saw the parade.
She is shorter than *me.*	*She* is shorter than *I.*
That is *me* hat.	That is *my* hat.
Who did you see?	*Whom* did you see?
To *who* did you give the money?	To *whom* did you give the money?
The girl to *who* I gave the money has gone away.	The girl to *whom* I gave the money has gone away.
Who did you take me for?	For *whom* did you take me?
My sister, *whom* I thought would go, cannot go.	My sister, *who* I thought would go, cannot go.
Give the money to *whomever* needs it.	Give the money to *whoever* needs it.

COMPOSING SENTENCES CONTAINING POSSESSIVE NOUNS

52. Directions.—1. Write a sentence for each word in the first two columns of words in Exercise VIII, using these words in the possessive singular.

2. Write a sentence for each word in the last two columns of words in Exercise VIII, using these words in the possessive plural.

EXERCISE VIII

1.	father	5.	Garney and Hoadley	9.	man	13.	child
2.	fly	6.	lawyer	10.	lady	14.	calf
3.	Grace	7.	woman	11.	manservant	15.	clerk
4.	superintendent	8.	Jack	12.	turkey	16.	cashier

USE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

53. The following suggestions refer to various right and wrong ways of using nouns and pronouns.

1. Avoid placing an apostrophe before the final letter of a noun or a pronoun ending in *s*. *Jone's, Dicken's, her's, it's, their's,* are incorrect possessive forms. *Jones's, Dickens's, hers, its, theirs,* are correct forms.

2. *It's, you're,* and *they're* are not possessive forms but are contractions of *it is, you are,* and *they are*. Avoid using these contractions as possessives.

3. There are no such forms as *ourn, yourn, youse, hisn, hern, theirn, theirselves, itsself,* and *hisself*. Watch your pronunciation, and use the correct forms, *our* or *ours; you, your,* or *yours; his; her* or *hers; their* or *theirs; themselves; itself; himself*.

4. There is a tendency to use *me* for *I* and *I* for *me*. *It is me* is wrong; *It is I* is correct. *They called to her and I* is incorrect. *They called to her and me* is the correct form. *Let you and I* is never correct. Say *Let you and me*.

5. The use of the word *same* as a pronoun is a common error in business letters. This word may be an adjective or a noun, but not a pronoun. Do not say, *Please fill out the enclosed order blank and return same to us. Please fill out the enclosed order blank and return it to us* is the right form.

6. The pronouns *you* and *they* should not be used indefinitely. *Yesterday, they had a collision on that road,* is poor; *Yesterday, there was a collision on that road* is better. *Don't they have street cars in your town?* is wrong. *Are there no street cars in your town?* is correct.

7. A certain order of precedence has been established for pronouns, and this order is observed by persons of refinement. The rules are as follows:

Rule I.—*Pronouns representing the person addressed, or spoken to, should precede all other pronouns.*

Rule II.—*Pronouns representing persons spoken of should precede pronouns denoting the speaker.*

Were *you* and *he* and *I* told to act on the committee?
Between *you* and *me* there can be no ill feeling.
Let *you* and *me* go for a walk.
They and *we* have decided to go.
He and *I* will help you.

In the first three sentences, the pronouns *you, you,* and *you* represent the person addressed and correctly occur first; in the last two sentences *they* and *he* represent the persons spoken of and correctly precede the pronouns *we* and *I,* which represent the speaker.

These rules hold true in case a noun is used in connection with a pronoun. Say *John and I joined the navy* and *You and Mary should go to help them.* The order *I and John* or *Mary and you* violates the rules.

8. A pronoun should not be used so that it may refer to either of two antecedents, for ambiguity results. *He told the story to his brother and then he denied it* is not clear, for there is uncertainty as to who made the denial. The form, *He told the story to his brother and then his brother denied it* leaves no doubt concerning the meaning.

Mary said, "Mother, your hat is very pretty" is clear, but in *Mary told her mother that her hat is very pretty,* doubt immediately arises as to whether the hat belongs to Mary or to her mother. Always aim to use pronouns so that no question can arise concerning their antecedent and the meaning of the sentence. The following will make clear the importance of exercising care in this respect:

Not Clear	*Clear*
Walter told *his* father that *his* car had been wrecked.	Walter said to *his* father, "*Your* car has been wrecked," *or* Walter said to *his* father, "*My* car has been wrecked."
Katie's mother told *her she* could not go until *she* completed *her* work.	Katie's mother said, "*You* cannot go until *you* complete *your* work," *or* Katie's mother said, "*I* cannot go until *I* complete *my* work."

9. Always use a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case before a verbal noun. Do not say, *I regret that the child interrupting you confused you,* but say, *I regret that the child's interrupting you confused you. Have you not heard of him taking all that money?* should be changed to *Have you not heard of his taking all that money?*

10. When a pronoun represents two or more nouns connected by *and* and the nouns denote different things, the pronoun should be plural.

JAMES and MARY broke *their* skates.
The CAT and the DOG want *their* food.

11. If a pronoun represents two or more singular nouns connected by *and,* and each noun is preceded by the word *each, every,* or *no,* the pronoun should be singular.

EACH BOY and EACH MAN did *his* best.
EVERY FLOWER and EVERY LEAF has lost *its* freshness.

12. If a pronoun represents two singular nouns connected by *or* or *nor,* the singular form of the pronoun must be used.

Neither JOHN nor HENRY has found *his* money.
Either ANNE or RUTH will help *her* father.

13. In formal speech or in letters, do not use abbreviated or contracted nouns. The following are incorrect: *exam, photo, phone, gent, pants, bike, prof, specs, doc, sup.* Use the correct forms: *examination, photograph, telephone, gentleman, trousers, bicycle, professor, spectacles, doctor, superintendent.*

NOUNS COMMONLY CONFUSED

54. The nouns mentioned in the following list are used incorrectly by many persons. Thoughtful consideration of the explanations and illustrations given here will aid you materially in learning to discriminate in the use of these nouns.

Amount, Quantity, Number.—*Amount* means the total of two or more sums, the aggregate; *quantity,* the measure of bulk, extent, mass; *number,* a collection of persons or things.

A large *number* of persons attended the meetings of the convention.
Vast *quantities* of coal are mined every year in the anthracite region.
He invested a large *amount* of money in real estate.

Answer, Reply.—An *answer* is a response in words to a question, a communication, an objection, or an argument; a *reply* is that which is said, written, or done by another, and is more formal than an answer.

I ventured no *answer* because I did not understand the question.
The lawyer's *reply* to the charges of his opponent was very bitter.

Aught, Naught.—*Aught* means anything; *naught* means nothing and is also a name for the character 0, frequently called cipher or zero.

Neither has *aught* that he can call his own.
Naught save the gurglings of the rill was heard.
Two *naughts* (not *aughts*) occurred in the number.

Balance, Rest, Remainder.—*Balance* is correctly used to denote the difference between the credit and debit sides of an account. When it is used in the sense of *rest* or *remainder*, it is incorrect. These two words refer to that which remains or is left over.

His account showed a *balance* of ten dollars.
The *rest* of the session was wasted in idle debate.
With a part of his fortune he purchased an estate; the *remainder* he invested in bonds.

Error, Mistake, Blunder.—An *error* is an unintentional deviation from correctness; a *mistake* is an error in judgment; a *blunder* is an inexcusable error resulting from carelessness, heedlessness, stupidity, ignorance, or awkwardness.

His stenographer made many *errors* in her work.
The bookkeeper had many *mistakes* in his calculations.
The boy's *blunders* were somewhat amusing.

Lightning, Lightening.—These words are sometimes confused although they are entirely different in meaning. *Lightning* means the flashing of light caused by a discharge of atmospheric electricity from one cloud to another or from a cloud to the earth. *Lightening* means illuminating or making less burdensome.

The *lightning* flashed again and again.
The *lightening* of the boat was done by one of the officers.
I shall be very glad to assist in the *lightening* of your cares.

Negligence, Neglect.—These words resemble each other closely and yet there is a distinction between them. *Neglect*

refers to acts and *negligence* to the habit or trait. *Negligence* is habitual failure to do what ought to be done; *neglect* is the failure to do some particular thing that should be done.

The accident was due to the engineer's *neglect* to notice the signals.
The man pursued his own pleasures to the *neglect* of his business.
The trouble with that young man is incurable *negligence*.
The janitor was dismissed for *negligence*.

Part, Portion.—A *part* is an amount less than the whole of something, either separated from the whole or thought of or mentioned as separate from it. A *portion* is a part viewed with reference to some one for whom it is intended, or with reference to some specific purpose to which it is to be applied.

We were very busy during the fore *part* of the day.
After he received his *portion* of the land, he sold a *part* of it and farmed the rest.
The crew divided into five *portions* the food and water that remained.

Patients, Patience.—The similarity in the pronunciation of these words is the cause of their being confused, for they are entirely different in meaning. *Patience* is the quality of being patient and indicates endurance of wrongs and misfortunes; it also refers to the act or power of calmly waiting for something. *Patients* are sufferers or persons undergoing medical or surgical treatment.

The doctor called on twenty *patients* yesterday.
My *patience* was almost exhausted when the letter arrived.

Plenty, Abundance.—*Plenty* means a full supply, whereas *abundance* refers to a great plenty, an overflowing fulness.

There was *plenty* of food for all.
The crops were so large that there was an *abundance* of everything.

Populace, Populous.—The noun *populace* is sometimes confused with the adjective *populous*. However, they are entirely different in meaning. *Populace* means the common people, and *populous* means abounding in people, thickly inhabited. The difference in the use of these words is shown in the sentences:

The *populace* swarmed into the streets.
We traveled through a *populous* region and studied the customs of the people.

Principal, Principle.—*Principal* is often used when *principle* is the right word, and vice versa. As a noun, *principal* means a leader, a chief or a head; also, a capital sum placed at interest, due as a debt, or used as a fund. It is also used as an adjective and in this use means highest in rank, authority, and importance. *Principle* is a noun that means source, origin, ultimate cause; a general truth; a general or settled rule or ground of action.

We like to deal with him for he is a man of good *principles.*

The *principal* objection I have to the scheme is that it isn't practical.

The interest on the *principal* was sufficient to give her a very good income.

The *principal* event of the day was the strenuous defense that the *principal* of the school made for his *principles.*

Relative, Relation.—The words *relative* and *relation* were formerly applied to persons connected by blood or marriage, but now it is better to use *relative* in speaking of kindred, for *relation* is used in many senses.

The *relations* between the two men were in every respect pleasant.

The *relatives* of great or wealthy persons are prone to inform others of the relationship.

Rise, Raise.—*Rise* is a noun meaning increase, advance, as of price, value, rank. In this sense, *raise* is sometimes substituted for it, but *raise* used to denote an increase or advance is colloquial. *Raise* would therefore be incorrect in the following sentences:

There has been a steady *rise* in prices.

He felt that he was entitled to a *rise* (or increase) in his salary.

As we watched the rapid *rise* of the river we wondered what the result would be.

Stationery, Stationary.—*Stationery* is a noun meaning the articles sold by stationers and used in writing. *Stationary* is sometimes confused with it, but this word is an adjective and means fixed in a certain place or course, not moving, stable.

That firm uses the best *stationery.*

The engine that he operates is *stationary.*

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED

55. Discriminate carefully between the incorrect forms and the correct forms so that you may learn to avoid similar errors.

Incorrect	*Correct*
I do not think it is *him whom* is to blame.	I do not think it is *he who* is to blame.
Them that do wrong should be punished.	*They* that do wrong should be punished.
Us girls will go with you.	*We* girls will go with you.
It was not *me who* you saw.	It was not *I whom* you saw.
Ask *who* you please.	Ask *whom* you please.
I wonder *who* he means.	I wonder *whom* he means.
I am ten years older than *him*.	I am ten years older than *he*.
This is not *ourn*. It must be *yourn*.	This is not *ours*. It must be *yours*.
He does not know *who* to go to.	He does not know to *whom* to go.
That is *our's*.	That is *ours*.
Just look at *them* pears.	Just look at *those* pears.
It is a question between you and *I*.	It is a question between you and *me*.
There is no need of *him* going now.	There is no need of *his* going now.
I never heard of *him* doing wrong.	I never heard of *his* doing wrong.
Please let *she* and *I* go.	Please let *her* and *me* go.
Father objects to *me* buying the car.	Father objects to *my* buying the car.
Has everybody finished *their* lesson?	Has everybody finished *his* lesson?
Take the child to *it's* mother.	Take the child to *its* mother.
If I were *her*, I should go at once.	If I were *she*, I should go at once.
Why did he insist upon *us* going with him?	Why did he insist upon *our* going with him?
If you are dissatisfied with the car, return *same* to us at our expense.	If you are dissatisfied with the car, return *it* to us at our expense.
The *prof* cannot find his *specs*.	The *professor* cannot find his *spectacles*.
They have a very poor lighting system in our town.	Our town has a very poor lighting system.
The superintendent said that *I* and *you* should do this work.	The superintendent said that *you* and *I* should do this work.

Incorrect	*Correct*
Ralph, I, and *you* have been asked to attend the meeting.	*You, Ralph,* and *I* have been asked to attend the meeting.
Ruth told *her* mother that *her* suit had been torn.	Ruth said, "Mother, *my* suit has been torn."
That *gent* on the *bike* is just learning to ride.	That *man* on the *bicycle* is just learning to ride.
Each boy did *their* work well.	Each boy did *his* work well.

WRITING THE CORRECT FORMS OF SENTENCES

56. Directions.—In the sentences in Exercise IX occur errors in the use of nouns or pronouns. Determine what is wrong in each sentence and then write each one correctly.

EXERCISE IX

1. The foreman asked the clerk whether he had sent his order.
2. The person who wrote this letter does not know how to use their pronouns.
3. The magazine's cover had been torn and their pages had been lost.
4. Who would have thought of them failing in business?
5. Yourn is better than hisn.
6. Mary said, "Are youse talking to me?"
7. They told me to divide the money between he and I.
8. I and John will help you.
9. The girl told her sister that she must practice her music.
10. I went to the phone and asked the doc to come immediately.
11. Each girl and each woman worked hard to aid their country.
12. Father asked, "Don't they have any good hotels in this town?"
13. The boys claim that the book is their's but I know that it is her's.
14. "Who shall I send the goods to?" asked the grocer.
15. It was not us girls who you saw running down the street. It was them girls who live next door.
16. I do not care what you do with the balance of the material.
17. The amount of hogs killed each year in Chicago is more than eight million.
18. In such a populace district the health laws must be strictly enforced.
19. The doctor was a peculiar man but his patience loved him.
20. The principle speaker of the evening was a man of great personal charm.

PRACTICE IN USING NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

57. You have now learned the most important inflections of nouns and pronouns, and have studied about the correct ways of using these parts of speech and the errors that should be avoided in their use. The mastery of the principles discussed will be of great advantage to you in many ways if you apply what you study. Watch your speech and make certain you do not make any of the errors mentioned in this lesson. Constantly make use of the correct forms to which your attention has been called, so that these forms will come to you unconsciously when you have occasion to use them. You will soon find that you are acquiring greater ease in speech and that you feel less self-conscious when you carry on a conversation with your associates, both business and social.

The writing of letters is excellent practice in acquiring accuracy in writing and in gaining confidence and facility in expressing your thoughts. Therefore read carefully the directions for Exercise X and write the letter required for that Exercise.

EXERCISE X

58. Directions.—Write a letter from your home address, present date, to some friend, giving this friend's name and address. Tell your friend about some trip you have taken, a place of business you have visited, or some work in which you are interested. Have your letter contain at least 150 words.

In this letter, make use of what you have learned in this lesson concerning nouns and pronouns, as well as the principles governing the arrangement and the punctuation of letters, the use of capital letters, and the correct use of words, discussed in earlier lessons.

Mail your work on the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing it and have looked over it carefully, sending all the Exercises at one time. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 12)

THE VERB

INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB

1. The Importance of the Verb.—The verb is the most important of the parts of speech, for every sentence contains one or more verbs. Without the verb, no expression of a complete thought is possible. For instance, in *Go at once, The man seems extremely tired, Will you do this work?,* if you omit the verbs *go, seems, will do,* the remaining expressions are not properly related and do not convey a complete idea. A thought may be expressed by merely a verb, however. Say *Go, Come, Stop,* and you have complete thoughts, for *you,* the subject of these verbs, is clearly implied.

No other part of speech has so many changes in form to denote some change in meaning or use, and probably no other part of speech is so frequently misused. The explanations that follow make clear the various inflections of the verb and point out numerous common errors in its use. Thoughtful application of these discussions should enable you to use verbs correctly.

CLASSES OF VERBS

2. Verbs are divided into two classes—*transitive* and *intransitive.*

3. Transitive Verbs.—If the action expressed by a verb passes over from some doer to a receiver of the act, the

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

verb is **transitive.** In the sentence, *The dog bit the boy,* the action expressed by the verb *bit* passes over from the *dog,* the *doer* or *actor,* to the receiver of the act, *boy.* Therefore, *bit* is a transitive verb. Observe the transitive verbs in the following sentences:

I *bought* a return ticket and *gave* it to my brother.
The engineer *wrecked* the train.
The girl *lost* control of her car.
That agent *insured* my house.
Several letters *were written* by the stenographer.
The ball *was caught* by a small boy.
The men *were hired* by the foreman.

In all these sentences, both actor and receiver of the action are expressed. In the first four sentences the subject denotes the actor, or doer, and the object represents the receiver of the action; in the last three sentences the subject denotes the receiver of the action, while the actor is represented by the object of the preposition *by.* Each of these verbs is a transitive verb.

4. Intransitive Verbs.—Many verbs that express action do it in such a way that the action is not represented as being received by some person or thing. Verbs of this kind are called **intransitive verbs.** In the sentence, *The horse ran away,* the verb *ran* expresses action, but as this action does not pass over to a receiver of the action, *ran* is an intransitive verb. All the verbs in the following sentences are intransitive:

I *remained* at home because my head *ached.*
James *overslept* and *did* not *get* to work in time.
The man *turned* away and *strode* off in another direction.
Stay here with me until they *come.*
The clerk *smiled* pleasantly.
He *was* tired because he *had walked* so far.
That woman *seems* very kind.

5. Intransitive verbs are never followed by an object, but many verbs of this class are completed by a predicate noun, a predicate pronoun, or a predicate adjective. Such verbs express being or state rather than action. Thus, in the sentence, *He is my friend,* the verb *is* expresses being and is followed by

the predicate noun *friend,* which denotes the same person as the subject *he*. In the sentence, *The prisoner appeared guilty,* the verb *appeared* does not express action, but denotes being and is followed by the predicate adjective *guilty*. In *It was he who seemed most tired,* the verb *was* is completed by the predicate pronoun *he,* and the verb *seemed* is completed by the predicate adjective *tired*. Each of these verbs is intransitive. All the forms of the verbs *be, seem, become, appear, look, smell* and *feel* are verbs of this kind.

They *have been* fellow workmen for many years.
The boys *seem* very busy.
The man *became* president last month.
Those flowers *look* very pretty.
Why *do* you *feel* so sad?

6. It must not be thought that intransitive verbs can not be modified by adverbs and other adverbial expressions, for such is not the case. In *The boys went slowly down the street,* the intransitive verb *went* is modified by the adverb *slowly* and the phrase *down the street*. In the following sentences, the intransitive verbs are printed in small capitals and the modifiers of these verbs are printed in Italics:

Great clouds CAME *from the east.*
The men in that shop WORK very *hard.*
We CAME *to work early.*
The chickens RAN *for shelter from the storm.*
He SPOKE *to her kindly.*

7. Active and Passive Voice.—From the examples given in Art. **3,** it is clear that transitive verbs have two forms, one in which the subject names the actor and one in which the subject names that which is acted upon. These two forms are usually designated as the *active* and the *passive voice*. When a verb is in the active voice, the emphasis is placed upon the actor and the subject denotes the actor; when a verb is in the passive voice, the receiver of the act is made prominent and the subject denotes the receiver of the act.

All the verbs in the following sentences are in the active voice and the subject denotes the actor or doer. Each verb has an object, this object denoting the receiver of the act.

JOHN *received* your message early this morning.
THIS WORK *will please* your employer.
DR. SMITH *dressed* the wound.
WE *make* several flower beds every year.
The SUPERINTENDENT *discharged* eight men.

These sentences may be changed so that the verbs are in the passive voice. The receiver of the act is then emphasized and the word denoting the receiver of the act is used as the subject.

Your MESSAGE *was received* by John early this morning.
Your EMPLOYER *will be pleased* by this work.
The WOUND *was dressed* by Dr. Smith.
Several flower BEDS *are made* by us every year.
Eight MEN *were discharged* by the superintendent.

Note that in each of the passive constructions some form of the verb *be* helps to make up the verb. This holds true with all verbs in the passive voice, for some form of *be* is always a part of the verb.

Other important things to note are:

The object of the verb in the active voice becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice.

The subject of the verb in the active voice becomes the object of the preposition *by* in the passive construction.

Sometimes the actor is not expressed in the passive construction, as in *This letter was received yesterday*. Here it is unnecessary to show *who* received the letter and the word designating the actor is omitted.

8. Verbs Both Transitive and Intransitive.—Some verbs are transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another. For example, the verb *study* in, *Children study your lessons*, is transitive, because its meaning is completed by the object *lessons*, which denotes the receiver of the action expressed by the verb. However, in the sentence, *The boys study hard*, the verb *study* is intransitive, because the action expressed by it does not pass over to some receiver of the action. It will thus be seen that the use made of a verb in a sentence determines whether the verb is transitive or intransitive. The following sentences illustrate verbs used transitively and intransitively:

Transitive	*Intransitive*
The traveler *speaks* many languages.	He *speaks* clearly.
I *wrote* several letters yesterday.	I *wrote* to them about it.
I *have suffered* much pain.	I *have suffered* for my faith.

9. When a verb is used transitively in one sentence and intransitively in another, it is plain that different definitions apply to each use. For example, in your dictionary, definitions for the verb *speak* are given under two different headings. The verb is followed by the abbreviation *v.i.* (*verb intransitive*) and its intransitive meanings are given. Then follow the abbreviation *v.t.* (*verb transitive*) and its transitive meanings. Careful comparison of the two groups of definitions for such verbs will clearly show their different meanings and uses.

DETERMINING WHETHER VERBS ARE TRANSITIVE OR INTRANSITIVE

10. Directions.—Make a list of the verbs used in the sentences occurring in Exercise I and classify each verb as transitive or intransitive. Also tell whether the transitive verbs are active voice or passive voice.

EXAMPLE.—

1. Was guarded. Transitive Verb, Passive Voice.

EXERCISE I

1. The store was guarded by two policemen.
2. The large hall was always light and well-ventilated.
3. Mr. Johnson, who lost his house by fire, had always opposed fire insurance.
4. The verdict will be rendered today if the jury can agree.
5. The men worked hard so that they might finish the building at the time specified.
6. The election passed very quietly, and when the votes were counted it was found that Mr. Adams had been elected.
7. This house is built of good materials and will last much longer than the other one.
8. The fire raged throughout the night and did much damage.
9. Our foreman praised us for the good work we had done and promised us an advance in wages.
10. Company A fought bravely and took many prisoners.

TENSE

11. **Tense** is that form or use of a verb which reveals the time of the action expressed by the verb. For instance, in *I walk, You see, They run,* the form of the verb shows that the action is performed in the present—the present time is indicated. In *I walked, You saw, They ran,* past time is denoted; while in *I shall walk, You will see, They will run,* future time is shown.

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Future Tense*
I work	I worked	I shall work
I am working	I was working	I shall be working
I do work	I did work	He will work
I am	I was	I shall be
You are	You were	You will be
He is	He was	He will be
I go	I went	I shall go
I am going	I was going	I shall be going
I do go	I did go	He will go

12. **Present Tense.**—A verb that asserts action or being as occurring in the present time is in the **present tense.** The form that is given for the verb itself, or the root form with the letter *s* added, is the one that is most frequently used in this tense.

I often *walk* in the park.
Such an occurrence seldom *happens.*
We frequently *go* to the woods for flowers.
I *write* to her regularly.
Mary *plays* the violin.

Each one of the verbs in these sentences refers to an action that is performed at the present time. The verbs therefore are in the present tense.

In addition to these common forms, the progressive form ending in *ing,* as *are singing, is working,* and the emphatic form, in which *do* occurs, as in *do sing, do work,* may also be used.

Progressive Forms

I *am walking* in the park.
We *are going* to the woods for flowers.
I *am writing* a letter to her.
Mary *is playing* at the concert.

Emphatic Forms

I *do walk* in the park every day.
We *do go* to the woods.
I *do write* home frequently.
Mary *does play* very nicely.

13. Past Tense.—A verb that asserts action or being as occurring in the past time is in the **past tense.** With some verbs, this tense is formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the form used in the present tense, and with other verbs it is formed irregularly from the present tense.

He *walked* home in ten minutes.
The accident *happened* near our town.
They *went* to her with their troubles.
The girl *wrote* to me concerning the affair.

The verbs in these sentences show very clearly that they refer to actions that were performed in the past. In the first two illustrations, the verbs *walked* and *happened* are formed by adding *ed* to the verbs *walk* and *happen,* respectively. *Went,* in the third sentence, and *wrote,* in the fourth sentence, are the past tenses of the verbs *go* and *write,* respectively, and they are formed irregularly from the present-tense forms of these verbs.

Note the progressive and emphatic forms in the following sentences:

Progressive Forms

He *was riding* home in his friend's car.
They *were* always *going* to her with their troubles.
All the men *were writing* letters.

Emphatic Forms

They *did tell* us the story.
The boys *did go* to work this morning.
He *did write* to his mother.

14. Future Tense.—A verb that asserts action or being as occurring in time to come is in the **future tense.** This tense cannot be expressed by the verb alone, as the present and

past tenses are. It is necessary to use the helping verb *shall* or *will* in connection with the verb itself in order to make up the common forms used in this tense. These may occasionally be varied with the progressive forms.

We *shall walk* to town this afternoon.
Such a mistake *will* never *happen* again.
They *will go* in the morning.
I *shall write* about my adventures.
We *shall be working* overtime tonight.
The men *will be coming* soon.

EXERCISE II

15. Directions.—For Exercise II write ten sentences as follows: (*a*) three, each containing at least one verb in the present tense; (*b*) four, containing verbs in the past tense; (*c*) three, containing verbs in the future tense. Underscore the verbs in each sentence.

DETERMINING THE TENSE OF VERBS

16. Directions.—Make a list of the verbs in the sentences in Exercise III and mention the tense of each verb.

EXAMPLE.—

Verbs	*Tense*
did say	past
heard	past

EXERCISE III

1. Henry did say it. I heard him.
2. The men worked very hard but they could not complete the cottage by the first of June.
3. As soon as he comes home, he will tell us what they did.
4. I shall go early in the morning and I shall not return until late at night.
5. John is studying his lessons, but Frank is playing ball.
6. He did not utter a sound but we saw that he was in great pain.
7. Do you play the violin or the guitar?
8. They will be late if they do not hurry.
9. The whistle is blowing and the men are starting the machinery.
10. Why did Max buy such a small car?

17. Helping Verbs.—You have doubtless noticed that a number of the verbs illustrated in the preceding articles consist of two or more words, some such word as *am, was, shall, do, did,* etc. helping to make up the complete verb. These helping verbs, or *auxiliaries* as they are frequently termed, are used to make up several of the tenses and some of the special forms of verbs. The principal auxiliaries are *shall, will, have, be, do, may, can, must, might, could, would,* and *should.* The auxiliaries in the following sentences are printed in Italic:

Will you go with us?
I *shall* arrive at three o'clock.
You *must* hurry home.
May I stay with you today?
Jack *did* not complete his work on time.
They *have* gone to the store for sugar.

18. Principal Parts of Verbs.—Most verbs have four important forms known as the **principal parts of the verbs.** The names of these parts are the *present tense,* the *past tense,* the *present participle,* and the *past participle.* Since these parts, with the help of the auxiliaries, make up the verb, an understanding of them is important.

The **present tense** is that one of the principal parts from which all the other forms are derived. It is the most common form and the one that we refer to when we give the verb itself.

dance, believe, insist, speak, take

The **past tense** is that simple form of the verb which denotes past time. With many verbs, it is formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense, and with other verbs it is formed irregularly.

danced, believed, insisted, spoke, took

The **present participle** implies a continuance of the action, being, or state, and is formed by adding *ing* to the present-tense form.

dancing, believing, insisting, speaking, taking

The **past participle** implies that the action, being, or state is completed. With many verbs, the past participle is formed

by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense and with others it is formed irregularly. This is the form of the verb most commonly used in expressing the passive voice.

danced, believed, insisted, spoken, taken

The principal parts of the verbs *turn, live, come, go,* and *write* are as follows:

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Present Participle*	*Past Participle*
turn	turned	turning	turned
live	lived	living	lived
come	came	coming	come
go	went	going	gone
write	wrote	writing	written

19. Regular and Irregular Verbs.—Most verbs form their past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the simple present tense form; as, *play, played, played; love, loved, loved; wish, wished, wished; hear, heard, heard.* Such verbs are called **regular verbs.**

All verbs that do not form their past tense and past participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense form are called **irregular verbs.** Note the changes in the following irregular verbs: *buy, bought, bought; see, saw, seen; run, ran, run; begin, began, begun; give, gave, given.*

Comparatively few of the verbs in the English language have irregular forms in their principal parts. Yet these irregular verbs are words of frequent occurrence and errors in their use are common, the chief error lying in the confusion of the past tense form and the past participial form. Such expressions as *I seen it, He has went* are common among the illiterate, but are avoided by all who desire to speak correctly.

20. To assist you in your use of the irregular verbs in which the past tense and the past participle do not have the same form, a list of such verbs with their principal parts is here given. The present participles are omitted from this list, because they are always formed by adding *ing* to the present-tense form. Learn the principal parts of these irregular verbs so thoroughly that you can use each part without hesitation.

If you feel doubtful concerning the principal parts of any irregular verbs not contained in this list, refer to your dictionary, for there you will find these parts given.

List of Irregular Verbs

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke or awaked	awaked
be or am	was	been
bear	bore	born
beat	beat	beaten
beget	begot	begotten
begin	began	begun
bid (to command)	bade	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laden
lay (to place)	laid	laid
lie (to recline)	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw (to cut)	sawed	sawed or sawn

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank or sunk	sunk or sunken
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slidden
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stride	strode	stridden
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
write	wrote	written

EXERCISE IV

21. Directions.—1. Give the principal parts of each of the following verbs: *talk, break, give, help, go, see, throw, speak, drink, lie* (to recline).

2. Use some form of each of these verbs in a sentence and state the tense of each verb.

EXAMPLE.—

We talked to them for several hours. Talked—past tense.

22. The Perfect Tenses.—The tenses explained thus far refer to action performed in the present, the past, and the future, but they do not show whether or not this action is completed. The **perfect tenses,** however, express action that is completed in the present, the past, or the future, this completed action being shown by means of the auxiliary *have, has,* or *had* used in connection with the past participle of the verb; as, *have studied, has done, had caught, will have helped.*

The names *present perfect, past perfect,* and *future perfect* are applied to the perfect tenses, the name itself really showing the time of the completed action.

23. A verb denoting action completed in the present time is in the **present perfect tense,** this tense being shown by the auxiliary *have* or *has* and the past participle of the verb.

I *have studied* this lesson.
The boys *have gone* to the farm.
Has the foreman *come* in yet?
The dog *has lost* its master.

24. A verb denoting action completed in some time in the past is in the **past perfect tense.** The auxiliary *had* used with the past participle of the verb makes up this tense.

I *had studied* the lesson before you came.
The boys *had gone* to the farm.
Had the foreman *come* in when you asked for him?
The dog *had lost* its master.

25. A verb denoting action completed at or before some particular time in the future is in the **future perfect tense.** The auxiliaries *shall have* or *will have* are always found in this tense.

I *shall have studied* the lesson thoroughly before the class is called.
The foreman *will have come* before you reach the shop.
The president *will have been elected* before I see you again.
No one can tell *what will have happened* before then.
We *shall have walked* the entire distance before you arrive.

The future perfect tense is not used so frequently as are the other tenses. It is well, however, to be familiar with the use and formation of this tense.

26. All the perfect tenses have progressive forms, though the future perfect progressive is rarely used.

Present Perfect Progressive

He *has been talking* for some time.
You *have been working* here for several years.
I *have been writing* to mother.

Past Perfect Progressive

He *had been calling* for several minutes before we heard him.
You *had been criticising* her unjustly.
The man *had been hiding* for a week before he was found.
I *had been walking* so long I was completely exhausted.

Future Perfect Progressive

I *shall have been working* for this firm two months tomorrow.

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED

27. Errors frequently occur in the use of the principal parts of many verbs, these errors usually being due to the confusion of the past-tense form and the past participle. An application of the general principles given here will enable any person to use the principal parts of verbs correctly.

1. The past tense of an irregular verb always stands alone in the predicate—it should never be used with an auxiliary. Such errors as *I have went, They have saw, The letter was wrote, He has came, It was tore*, are exceedingly common. They may be easily avoided, however, if the student will remember that *went, saw, wrote, came* and *tore* are the past tense forms of the verbs and cannot be immediately preceded by an auxiliary. The past participles should be used, as the correct forms are, *I have gone, They have seen, The letter was written, He has come, It was torn.*

2. The past participle of a verb should never be used as a predicate verb without one or more auxiliaries. *Done, seen, come, torn,* are all past participles and cannot properly be used in such expressions as *She done the work neatly, I seen him this morning, He come home yesterday, The girl torn her dress.* In these expressions, the past tense forms are required; as, *She did the work neatly, I saw him this morning, He came home yesterday, The girl tore her dress.*

This distinction as to use applies only to irregular verbs in which the past tense and the past participles do not have the same form. The past tense and the past participle of regular verbs always have the same form, so that no confusion can arise in their use.

Do Not Say	*Do Say*
I *knowed* you would come.	I *knew* you would come.
He *done* the work well.	He *did* the work well.
I *seen* her down the street.	I *saw* her down the street.
John *don't know* how to do his work.	John *doesn't know* how to do his work.
Father *has went* to town.	Father *has gone* to town.
Tom *has broke* his leg.	Tom *has broken* his leg.
To what hospital *have* they *took* your brother?	To what hospital *have* they *taken* your brother?
The game *begun* at nine o'clock.	The game *began* at nine o'clock.
The car *run* well the entire distance.	The car *ran* well the entire distance.
Has she *sang* yet?	*Has* she *sung* yet?
Did you know your dress *is tore?*	Did you know your dress *is torn?*
Several boys *were drownded.*	Several boys *were drowned.*
Have you *showed* me all the coats you have?	*Have* you *shown* me all the coats you have?
Is the milk *froze?*	*Is* the milk *frozen?*

28. Directions.—Each sentence in Exercise V contains one or more errors in verb forms. Determine what is wrong and then write the sentences correctly.

EXAMPLE.—

1. The men have drunk all the water that was in the pail.

EXERCISE V

1. The men have drank all the water that was in the pail.
2. The concert begun before we found our seats.
3. He drawed a beautiful picture for us.
4. The boys have went to the circus but the girls have came home.
5. When I come home from work I found that he had ate his supper and gone to the movies.
6. The boys seen the ball game.
7. I had wrote before I heard from you.
8. The men had forgot to fill the tanks.
9. The clerk done her work well and was given charge of her department.
10. "I have broke my arm," cried the little girl.

MODE

29. When you first took up the study of verbs you learned that verbs express action, state, or being, and you have doubtless noticed that this action, state, or being is expressed in different ways. Sometimes the verb indicates a fact, as in *I am going away.* In other instances, it states a command or an earnest request; as in *Go to the store immediately.* In still other cases, it may express something as doubtful, uncertain, or merely thought of; as in *If I were rich, I would give much to the poor.*

These different ways, or modes, of expressing the thought are commonly known as **mode.** There are several modes in the English language, but the only modes that every one need be able to distinguish are the *indicative* and the *subjunctive,* for these are the modes sometimes confused. Study carefully what is said in this lesson concerning these two modes so that you will not make errors in their use.

30. The **indicative mode** is the mode that is used in expressing a fact or a denial, or in asking a question.

I *went* to town yesterday. (States a fact)
He *did* not *go* with us. (Makes a denial)
Where *are* the boys? (Asks a question)

31. The **subjunctive mode** is the mode that is used in representing action or state as conditional or doubtful, or in expressing a wish.

If wishes *were* horses, beggars might ride.
If I *were* president, such crimes would be punished.
If the weather *be* pleasant, you may expect us.
If they *guarantee* a certain sum, I will do the work.
Though I *were* dead, I should hear your voice.
Should he *come,* I will let you know.
Would that I *were* king.

32. Indicative and Subjunctive Modes Contrasted. A verb in the subjunctive mode is generally preceded by one of the conjunctions *if, lest, though, although, that.* The use of such conjunctions, however, does not necessarily denote that

the verb is in the subjunctive mode. The mode depends upon whether the condition is regarded as a fact or as contrary to fact; as certain or as uncertain. The following sentences illustrate this distinction:

If she *is* old (and she is), she is still active. Indicative.
If she *be* old (We do not know whether she is old or not), you should help her. Subjunctive.
Although he *was* the king (and he was), he should have been punished. Indicative.
Though he *were* the king (and he is not), he should be condemned. Subjunctive.
Though he *is* rich (and he is), he is stingy. Indicative.
If I *were* rich (but I am not), I would help him. Subjunctive.

It will be noted that in these illustrations, the form of the verb in the subjunctive mode differs from that in the indicative mode. While it must not be thought that the mode may always be determined from the form used—for it is the meaning expressed, and not the form of the verb, that determines the mode—there are a few general principles that aid greatly in distinguishing between these modes.

1. In the subjunctive mode, verbs do not add *s* in the third person, singular number, as do most other verbs. The following will illustrate this:

Indicative: She sees, he walks, it runs, he sings, she lives, the boy swears.
Subjunctive: If she see, lest he walk, though it run, if he sing, though she live, though the boy swear.

2. If it is desired to use the verb *be* in a statement of fact denoting past time, then the indicative form *was* should be employed with a singular subject; if it is desired to denote a possibility, a wish, a supposition, or something contrary to fact, the subjunctive form *were* should be used with either a singular or a plural subject.

When I *was* in Canada, I visited Toronto. Indicative.
If I *were* he, I would not do that. Subjunctive.
If our berries *were* ripe, I would give you some. Subjunctive.

The following outline shows wherein the forms of the verb *be* differ in the indicative mode and in the subjunctive mode:

INDICATIVE

Present Tense		*Past Tense*	
I am	We are	I was	We were
You are	You are	You were	You were
He (she, it) is	They are	He (she, it) was	They were

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present Tense		*Past Tense*	
(If) I be	(If) we be	(If) I were	(If) we were
(If) you be	(If) you be	(If) you were	(If) you were
(If) he (she, it) be	(If) they be	(If) he (she, it) were	(If) they were

Note that in the subjunctive of *be,* the word *be* is used throughout the present tense, while *were* is used throughout the past tense.

In modern English the subjunctive mode is but little used except in the past tense and the past perfect tense in statements contrary to fact, and in wishes; the tendency at the present time is to drop the subjunctive forms and to use in their place the indicative forms. Thus, instead of saying *Hurry lest you be late,* you would be more likely to say *Hurry so that you will not be late.*

Consider carefully the following sentences and determine which of the italicized words is the better one to use:

If that suit *was—were* mine I would send it to the tailor.
Though she *be—is* an angel, I should dislike her.
If he ever *tells—tell* the truth, we do not know it.
I wish I *was—were* going with you.
Were—Was he here, I should be happy.
If Jack *was—were* well, he could go with you.
Provided he *go—goes* rapidly, he will be there in time.
If her work *was—were* satisfactory, why did she not keep the position?
Though he *ask—asks* for the money, I shall not give it to him.
If it *snow—snows,* we cannot go.
Unless he *takes—take* better care of his health, he will not recover.
If your sister *comes—come,* tell her to call me.
Was—Were it necessary, I would help him.

DETERMINING THE MODE OF VERBS

33. Directions.—Make a list of the verbs in the sentences of Exercise VI and tell which of these verbs are in the indicative mode and which are in the subjunctive mode.

EXAMPLE.—

1. were—subjunctive mode; would repeat—indicative mode.

EXERCISE VI

1. If I were you, I would not repeat such stories.
2. We hope that peace will soon be declared.
3. Lest harm come to you, we shall send someone with you.
4. Though we tried hard we could not finish the work on time.
5. If it rain, we shall not have the picnic.

THE PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS

34. Some verbs have in the present and past tenses, certain inflections or changes of form in consequence of changes in the person and number of the subject. The changes that take place in the verbs *run* and *am* are:

PRESENT TENSE

Singular

First Person:	I run	I am
Second Person:	You run	You are
Third Person:	He runs	He is

Plural

First Person:	We run	We are
Second Person:	You run	You are
Third Person:	They run	They are

PAST TENSE

Singular

First Person:	I ran	I was
Second Person:	You ran	You were
Third Person:	He ran	He was

Plural

First Person:	We ran	We were
Second Person:	You ran	You were
Third Person:	They ran	They were

35. Agreement of Subject and Predicate.—These inflections for person and number are very few and unimportant for English verbs, yet they have led grammarians to say that *a finite verb must agree with its subject in person and number*. By this they mean that such changes must be made in the form of verbs as are required by changes in the person and number of the subject.

A very common error is the failure of the verb to agree in number with its subject, singular verbs being used with plural subjects and plural verbs being used with singular subjects. These errors arise chiefly from a misapprehension of the subject of the verb or from a failure to consider the subject.

As a rule there is no difference between the singular and the plural forms, as the only distinct form of most verbs is the *s*-form which occurs in the third person, singular number, present tense. However, as this form is often used, it should be carefully noted.

The *boy* HEARS the music. (Singular)
The *boys* HEAR us when we call. (Plural)
I COME to you for assistance. (Singular)
He COMES to you for assistance. (Singular)
I SEE the men every day. (Singular)
Father SEES the men in the morning. (Singular)
We SEE the soldiers frequently. (Plural)

The verb *be* has more changes to show number and person than any other verb. No difficulty will be found in using this verb, however, if careful attention be given to the forms that occur in the various persons and numbers. *Am* is used only with a subject in the first person, singular number; *is* and *was* are always singular forms; *were* is always plural except when it is used with the pronoun *you*, when it may be either singular or plural, the number depending upon the meaning of the sentence.

I AM GOING away soon. (Singular)
Tom IS GOING to the mill. (Singular)
The *girls* ARE GOING to the concert. (Plural)
That *man* WAS INJURED in the wreck. (Singular)
Many *men* WERE INJURED in the explosion. (Plural)
The *price* of potatoes IS very high. (Singular)

The *prices* of most foods ARE beyond our reach. (Plural)
James, *you* WERE very late this morning. (Singular)
Boys, why WERE *you* away so long? (Plural)

36. Points to Be Observed.—Careful application of the following principles should enable you to use verbs so that they agree in person and number with their subjects.

1. The singular form of the verb is used with a subject that denotes but one person or thing.

The *boy* HAS GONE away.
I AM sorry *she* IS ill.

2. When the subject is a collective noun naming a group of persons or objects considered as one or as a whole, a singular verb is required.

The *school* HAS GONE on an excursion.
The *army* WAS ENCAMPED near us.

3. When the subject is a singular noun or pronoun modified by *each, every, either, neither, any*, the verb should be singular.

Each *boy* KNOWS his duty.
Every *child* HAS a right to an education.
Neither *book* IS the one I want.

4. When two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by *or, nor, either.....or, neither.....nor,* are used as the subject, a singular verb is required.

A *pen* or a *pencil* IS what he asked for.
Neither *father* nor *son* WAS INJURED.

5. The plural form of the verb is used with a subject that denotes more than one person or thing; as,

The *boys* HAVE GONE away.
The *daisies* ARE on the table.

6. When the subject is a collective noun conveying plural ideas or denoting a group of persons or things considered individually, use a plural verb.

The *team* WERE DISPUTING with regard to the commands of their captain.
The *audience* WERE in tears.

7. When two or more subjects are connected by *and*, a plural verb is required.

James and *John* ARE PROSPERING in business.
The *books* and the *papers* WERE on my desk.

8. When two or more singular subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each, every, all,* or *no,* a singular verb should be used.

Each *boy* and each *man* WAS there to help.
All the *food* and all the *water* IS exhausted.
Every *paper* and every *magazine* CONTAINS discussions of the great question before us.

9. When *each, either, neither, this, that,* or *one* is used as the subject, a singular verb is required.

Each HAS ten dollars.
This IS the one I want.

10. *All, those, these, few, many* require plural verbs.

All WERE glad when the war ended.
Few WERE in their places when the game began.
Many REQUIRE help to save them from suffering.

11. The words *any, none,* and *some* may have either singular verbs or plural verbs, the number depending upon the thought expressed.

Some of the food HAS BEEN USED. (Singular)
Some of the boys WERE here. (Plural)
None of the money WAS FOUND. (Singular)
None of the women WERE SATISFIED. (Plural)

12. The verb *was* should never be used with a plural subject. Do not say *We was tired. We* is plural and the correct form is *We were tired.*

13. The pronoun *you* always requires the plural form of the verb, whether *you* refers to one or more than one. *You were* and *Were you* are correct. *You was* and *Was you,* though frequently heard, are always incorrect.

14. When the word *there* introduces a sentence, mistakes often occur in the agreement of the subject and the predicate verb. If the subject is singular, the verb should be singular; if the subject is plural, the verb should be plural.

Incorrect	*Correct*
There HAS BEEN many *storms* this spring.	There HAVE BEEN many *storms* this spring.
There WAS few *persons* at the concert.	There WERE few *persons* at the concert.
There ARE a *quart* of milk in the bottle.	There IS a *quart* of milk in the bottle.

15. Listen to the conversations of persons near you and you will frequently hear *I says, Says I. Says* should never be used with the first person but is correctly used with the third person. *I say* and *He says* are the correct forms. If reference is made to past time, use *said;* as in *I said, You said, She said.*

16. When the subject is plural in form but singular in meaning, a singular verb is required.

Ten dollars IS the amount I paid.
Two weeks IS the length of my vacation.
Five years IS the term of the contract.

Note that in these sentences quantity rather than number is expressed.

MAKING SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES AGREE IN PERSON AND NUMBER

37. Directions.—Determine which of the words enclosed in marks of parenthesis in Exercise VII is the correct one to use and then write the sentences, using the proper word.

EXERCISE VII

1. Both Mary and her sister (are, is) stenographers.
2. (Was, Were) you in town last evening?
3. The boy (doesn't, don't) understand what I (says, say).
4. Fifty dollars (is, are) what I paid for the suit.
5. Mary and Mabel (is, are) going to the seashore.
6. Neither mother nor child (was, were) able to go.
7. There (was, were) five hundred men in the parade.
8. Every book and every magazine that he had lent me (was, were) lying on my desk.
9. Some of the boys (has, have) left for the camp at Moosic Lake.
10. None of the cows (was, were) good ones.
11. The committee (has, have) decided to hold the picnic next Tuesday.

12. Every child in the parade (knows, know) his place.
13. Both the book and the magazine (lies, lie) on the table in my room.
14. None of the men (seem, seems) satisfied with the decision of the manager.
15. There (is, are) but one ton of hay in the barn.

SOME TROUBLESOME VERBS

38. Shall and Will.—The auxiliaries *shall* and *will* with their past tenses (*should* and *would*) should be carefully distinguished. Both *shall* and *will* are used to form the future tense of verbs, but they denote different ideas and are a source of much confusion. The following illustrate some of the differences:

I *shall* walk. (Speaker expects to walk.)
I *will walk*. (Speaker is determined to walk.)
You *shall* walk. (Speaker is determined that *you* are to walk.)
You *will* walk. (Speaker expects *you* to walk.)
He *shall walk*. (Speaker is determined that the person denoted by *he* is to walk.)
He *will* walk. (Speaker expects *him* to walk.)

A careful application of the following general rules will be of great assistance in using *shall* and *will* correctly:

1. In declarative sentences, to indicate simple futurity or probability, use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third persons; as,

I *shall* see you tomorrow.
You *will* see her if you go today.
He *will* see the submarine if he looks for it.

2. In declarative sentences, to indicate promise, determination, threat, or command on the part of the speaker, use *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third persons; as,

I *will* do it in spite of what he says.
You *shall* do it at once.
He *shall* do what I tell him to do.

3. In direct quotations, use *shall* and *will* exactly as you would use them in ordinary declarative forms; as,

The President said: "I *shall* receive the message some time today." (Expectation)

The President said: "I *will* do all in my power to save my country." (Promise)

4. In indirect quotations, if the subjects do not refer to the same person, *shall* and *will* are used the same as in the declarative form; as, *Henry says I shall sing. Henry says Mary will sing.* Here mere futurity is denoted in both instances.

In indirect quotations, if the subjects refer to the same person, use *shall* in all persons to express mere futurity and *will* in all persons to denote promise or determination; as, *I told her that I shall be able to help.* (Futurity) *Mary says that she will help.* (Promise)

5. In interrogative sentences *shall* should always be used with the first person. When the subject is in the second or third person, that auxiliary should be used in asking the question which is logically expected in the answer.

Questions	*Answers*
Shall I see you soon?	You *will* see me soon.
Shall you be at home tonight?	I *shall.* (Futurity)
Will you go with me?	I *will* go. (Promise)
Will he see us?	I *think* he will. (Assertion)

6. *I'll* and *we'll* are contractions that stand for *I will* and *we will* and should therefore be used only when *I will* and *we will* would be correct. Care should be taken not to use these contractions when *I shall* and *we shall* are required. The following are correct:

I'll attend to the matter at once. (Promise)
We'll send you the money soon. (Promise)
I'll not go there again. (Determination)

39. Should and Would.—*Should* and *would* are the past-tense forms of *shall* and *will,* and, in general, they follow the same rules and have corresponding uses. *Should,* however, is sometimes used in the sense of *ought* to imply duty or obligation and is used with all subjects alike; as, *We should have gone to help her; He should know his duty. Would* is often used to indicate willingness, habit, or customary action; as, *I would help you if I could; They would often take that road; He would usually stop for us.*

40. May, Might, Can, and Could.—The word *may* with its past tense form *might* properly signifies permission and in some instances uncertainty or possibility; *can* with its past tense form *could* denotes ability. These words are frequently confused so that their use should be watched carefully. Note the correct use of these words in the following sentences:

May I go home now?
Mother said that I *might* go.
I *can* do that very quickly.
Father says that you *may* have the money.
He *could* help you with your lessons.
It *may* rain before we reach home.
Did you say I *might* use your car?
We doubt whether it *can* be done.

41. Confusion of Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—One very common source of error in the use of verbs is the confusion of transitive and intransitive verbs. A few verbs that are always transitive and a few that are always intransitive are frequently used incorrectly.

VERBS ALWAYS TRANSITIVE

Lay (*to place*), laid, laying, laid
Raise (*to lift*), raised, raising, raised
Set (*to place*), set, setting, set

VERBS ALWAYS INTRANSITIVE

Lie (*to recline*), lay, lying, lain
Rise (*to get up*), rose, rising, risen
Sit (*to rest*), sat, sitting, sat

Note the correct uses of the verbs:

LAY—LIE

He *laid* his weapon on the table.
Lie down, Fido.
Mother told me to *lie* down for an hour.
I have *lain* down and I feel much better.
The rain has *laid* the dust.
How long has he *lain* there?
Lay the book out of the child's reach.
He has *laid* all the carpets for us.
The hunter *laid* his gun on the log.
You will doubtless find the book just where you *laid* it.
I do not know how long it has *lain* in this box.

SIT—SET

Sit down to rest awhile.
Do not *set* the chair there; *set* it here.
We *sat* by the window for a long time.
Did you *set* the hen? Yes, she is *sitting* on thirteen eggs.
Father is *setting* out trees today.
Set the table at once for we are tired of *sitting* here.
Please *set* that work aside.
I have *sat* here for two hours waiting for you.
I have *set* the ferns outside.
The boys will *sit* in the front seats.

RAISE—RISE

The moon will *rise* at ten o'clock.
He has *risen* early every day this week.
I cannot *raise* so much money.
Raise your hand if you know the answer.
The bread would not *rise*.
The price of flour has *risen*.

DISCRIMINATING IN THE USE OF AUXILIARIES

42. Directions.—Read carefully the sentences in Exercise VIII and determine which of the words enclosed in the marks of parenthesis is the correct word to use. Then write each sentence, using the correct word.

EXERCISE VIII

1. He told me he (would, should) (teach, learn) me how to do the work.
2. When (will, shall) we see you again?
3. The bird is (sitting, setting) on her nest.
4. The tramps have (laid, lain) behind the barn all night.
5. (Can, May) I go to town this afternoon?
6. (Should, Would) you help me if I (should, would) ask you for assistance?
7. From her window she (might, could) look out on the park.
8. (Shall, Will) it make any difference to you?
9. Do not (set, sit) in the sun. (Set, Sit) here in the shade.
10. That story (can, may) be true, but you (can, may) not rely on its truth.
11. I (shall, will) be glad to help you if you (shall, will) tell me what I (can, may) do.

12. Mother was (lying, laying) down to rest, while I was (sitting, setting) the table.

13. He (should, would) not explain his actions when I asked him what he was doing.

14. If you (should, would) hear of a position, (will, shall) you write me?

15. The verdict (may, can) be rendered before morning, but I do not expect to hear it.

MISUSED VERBS

43. Learn to be discriminating in your use of the following verbs:

Accept, Except.—The words *accept* and *except* are similar in pronunciation and consequently are frequently confounded. However, they are entirely different in meaning and should not be confused. *Accept* means to take with a consenting mind, to receive with favor; as to accept a gift or a position. *Except* belongs to more than one part of speech, but as a verb, it means to leave out or exclude.

He would not *accept* any presents.
I shall *except* his name from the list.

The word *except* also means to object, and in this sense it is followed by *to;* as,

Do you *except* to my statement?
Will they *except* to my decision?

Affect, Effect.—These verbs are so often confused that care should be taken to use them correctly. *Affect* means to influence, move, or pretend, whereas *effect* means to cause to bring about or to execute.

That statement did not *affect* my decision in the least.
They *effected* a complete change in the organization of the company.
He *affected* not to notice the difference between the copies.

Allow, Admit, Think.—While *allow* used in the sense of *admit* or *think* is sometimes heard, it is incorrect and should be avoided. *Allow* means *permit* and its correct use is shown in the following sentences:

Will you *allow* me the right to investigate the matter?
I can not *allow* you so much money for expenses.

Allow is incorrect in such sentences as,

The old man *allowed* that he had caught the burglar.
I *allow* that you will not be able to fill the position with credit.
He *allows* that Wood is the greatest general.

Anticipate, Expect, Suppose.—*Anticipate* should not be used for *expect,* nor *expect* for *suppose*. *Anticipate* means to look forward to, especially in such fashion as to realize what is to come. *Expect* means to look forward to and implies some ground or reason for considering the event as likely to happen. *Suppose* means to accept as true for the sake of argument, to believe, conclude, judge, consider. It refers to the past, present, or future; whereas *expect* refers only to the future.

We *anticipate* having trouble with the firm.
I *suppose* you understand what is *expected* of you.
They *expected* to be here in time for supper.

Aggravate, Irritate.—The word *aggravate* is often used in the sense of *irritate, provoke,* or *exasperate,* but it is colloquial in these uses. *Aggravate* means to make more serious, to intensify. *Irritate* means to anger, vex, provoke, exasperate, etc.

The prattle of children generally *irritates* the sick.
Sickness greatly *aggravates* the ills of poverty.
So much delay in the shipment *exasperated* the buyer.

Emigrate, Immigrate.—These words are sometimes confused because of their similarity. An important difference exists between them, however, and this should be understood. Both of them carry the idea of permanent change of residence to some other country or distant region and they apply to the same person and the same act according to the side from which the action is viewed. To *emigrate* means to go out of a place, and to *immigrate* means to come into a place. Note the distinction between these words in the following sentences:

After the war, many *emigrated* from their native countries.
At that time, it was a common thing for large numbers to *immigrate* into unsettled regions.

Enthuse.—This word should not be used as a verb in the sense of to arouse or to create enthusiasm. Do not say,

We could not *enthuse* over the plan as it seemed a poor one.

This sentence should be expressed:

We could not *become enthusiastic* over the plan as it seemed a poor one.

Foot, Pay.—The word *foot* is much used in the sense of *pay* in such an expression as *to foot the bill.* However, in this use *foot* is colloquial and the expression should be changed to read *to pay the bill.* In one of its uses, *foot* means to sum up, as the numbers in a column, but it has no reference to the payment of a bill.

Graduate.—According to good authority, the form *was graduated* is preferred to *graduated* in such a sentence as, *He was graduated in 1920 at Harvard.* It should be remembered that the institution at which a person studies, graduates that person or admits him to a degree, at the end of a course of instruction. He is therefore graduated. Note the following:

Where *were* you *graduated,* Mr. Brown?

The applicant for the position replied readily, "I *was graduated* from the Boston Law School."

Hanged, Hung.—These two words should not be confused. *Hanged* is the proper word to use when reference is made to death by hanging. Thus, we would say,

They *hanged* the prisoners at daybreak.

She *hung* the clothes on the line.

Happen, Occur, Take Place, Transpire.—*Happen* means to occur by chance, to come about without previous design. Therefore things *happen* and *occur* by chance, but they *take place* by appointment. It is incorrect to use *transpire* in any of these senses, as it means to become known, to leak out.

It soon *transpired* that something important *had happened* at the meeting.

The wreck *occurred* only an hour ago.

The interview *took place* in the private office of the president.

Inaugurate, Commence, Begin.—Persons that like to use long words often use *inaugurate* where *commence* or *begin* would be the better word. *Inaugurate* means to admit into an office formally, to make a formal beginning, especially of something important and under favorable circumstances. *Commence* and *begin* are synonymous terms, but most authori-

ties prefer *begin,* except in formal use, as it is the shorter and simpler word. Note the following illustrations:

The President of the United States *is* always *inaugurated* on the fourth of March.

They are planning to *inaugurate* a reform in election methods.

The carpenters intend *to begin* work on the building next week.

In *commencing* to relate the story, he gave a few preliminary remarks.

Leave, Let.—The use of *leave* for *let,* as in such a sentence as *Leave me alone for a little while* is incorrect. Neither should *leave* be used in the sense of *allow,* as in the sentence *Mother will not leave us do it. Leave* means to cause to remain, to let be without interference, to withdraw or depart from, to desert, forsake; while *let* means to permit, allow, suffer. These words are used correctly in the following:

I shall *leave* this sample with you for inspection and trial.

Let me help you decide.

They are going *to leave* for the city next week.

Mind, Remember.—*Mind* is incorrect in the sense of *remember* and should not be used. Do not say, *Do you mind the time we visited you?* but rather, *Do you remember the time we visited you? Mind* as a verb has a number of correct uses, for it means to attend strictly or closely to, to be concerned or troubled about, to be careful or wary about, to take care or charge of. Note how it is used in the following:

I do not *mind* attending to that matter.

Will you *mind* the children while I go to town?

Mind what you do with that chemical.

Post, Inform.—*Post* in the sense of *inform* is colloquial. Do not say, *Keep well posted on all things pertaining to your business,* but rather *Keep well informed on all things pertaining to your business.*

Purpose, Propose.—These two words are sometimes confused, but the use of the one for the other is colloquial and should not be encouraged. *Propose* means to set before the mind, to offer for consideration or adoption. *Purpose* as a verb means to intend, design, resolve. These words may be used as follows:

He *proposed* that we divide the expense.
The lawyer *purposes* to prove his client innocent.
As I *purpose* to leave town in a short time, I *proposed* that they complete the investigation at once.

USING VERBS CORRECTLY

44. Directions.—Write sentences in which you use correctly the words given in Exercise IX.

EXERCISE IX

1. suppose	6. irritate	11. purpose
2. admit	7. immigrate	12. expect
3. affect	8. occur	13. emigrate
4. remember	9. let	14. hung
5. commence	10. inform	15. propose

VERBALS AND INFINITIVES

45. All the verbs considered thus far are verbs used as the predicates of sentences or of clauses, and express action, being, or state, concerning some person or thing. That is, they tell what something does, what is done to it, or in what condition it exists. Thus in the sentence *The boy ran to the barn*, the word *ran* asserts something concerning the *boy*. It tells what the boy did and is a predicating verb.

In contrast with verbs of this kind, there are certain verb forms which merely name action instead of asserting it. They are not used as predicates but have the functions of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. For instance, if you say *The book lying on the table belongs to me*, the word *lying*, while it is a verb form, does not assert anything concerning *book;* it merely restricts the meaning of this noun as any adjective might, by telling to what book reference is made. Also in the sentence *We told the foreman to send the goods across the city*, the expression *to send* is a verb form but it is not used to assert. It merely names the action in a general way and modifies the noun *foreman* as any adjective might modify this noun. The predicating verb in this sentence is the word *told*.

Verb forms of this kind which name action without asserting it, are placed in two classes; namely, *infinitives* and *verbals*.

46. Infinitives.—The infinitive is easily recognized for it is always preceded by the word *to*, either expressed or clearly implied, the word *to* in this use being termed *the sign of the infinitive*. Note the following:

We invited her *to go* with us.
The captain ordered the sentry *to shoot*.
He tried *to escape*.
He is about *to go* to war.
He seems *to have suffered* much.
They are almost ready *to depart*.
We knew the letter *to have been written* while he was secretary.
Let him *sing* (*to sing*) for us.
Determined *to succeed*, we set *to work* in earnest.
You need not *hurry* (*to hurry*) with the work.
Dare you *go* (*to go*) with us?
We saw him *leave* (*to leave*) the house.
Make him *wash* (*to wash*) the windows.

47. Points to Be Observed Concerning Infinitives. It must not be thought that every expression preceded by *to* is an infinitive, for such is not the case. The word *to* may precede a noun or a pronoun and introduce a prepositional phrase, as in *to the bank, to the store, to town, to you, to me*. *To* is the sign of the infinitive only when it precedes a verb form, as in *to sing, to dance, to talk, to have walked, to have spoken, to have worked*.

The sign of the infinitive should not be separated from the verb form by an adverb or other adverbial expression. Compare the following correct and incorrect expressions:

Incorrect	*Correct*
To almost succeed.	Almost to succeed *or* To succeed almost.
To always help.	Always to help *or* To help always.
To loyally and faithfully support.	To support loyally and faithfully.
To at all times do the work.	To do the work at all times.
It is your duty to faithfully keep all records.	It is your duty to keep all records faithfully.

48. Verbals.—When the present participle or the past participle is used without an auxiliary it should not be regarded

as a verb but as a verbal. For instance, in *The cows* DRIVEN *to the pasture enjoyed the luxuriant grass,* the past participial form *driven* is not used with predicating force and is not a verb. It is an adjective modifying the noun *cows.* Other illustrations of participial forms not used as verbs but as verbals follow:

We could see the cattle *grazing* in the fields.
We found a dog *lying* by the side of the track.
The man *reproved* by his foreman did not return.
We saw many trees heavily *laden* with fruit.
Working in the shop all day tired the men.
Playing the violin was a pleasure to him.

In the first four sentences, the words *grazing, lying, reproved,* and *laden* are participial forms of the verbs and are used as adjective modifiers of the nouns *cattle, dog, man,* and *trees,* respectively. The general name **verbal** is applied to them. Some restrict the term and call them **verbal adjectives** since they do the work of an adjective.

In the last two sentences *working* and *playing* are also verbals but they perform a different work, or function, than do the verbals in the other sentences. They are the subjects of the verbs *tired* and *was,* respectively, and therefore are used as nouns. The term **verbal,** or **verbal noun,** may be applied to them. Observe the verbal nouns in the sentences that follow:

He was accused of *cheating.*
Being loved is more satisfactory than *being hated.*
You must thank him for *having assisted* you.
His *having escaped* was due to carelessness.

49. Points to Be Observed Concerning Verbals. A verbal adjective, or participle, should not be used unless it modifies some other word in the sentence. Failure to observe this rule results in a wrong construction known as the *dangling participle.* It is incorrect to say *Going to work this morning, an accident occurred,* for the expression *Going to work this morning* does not modify any other word in the sentence, for, of course, an *accident* does not go to work. The thought intended evidently is that the accident occurred while we were going to work this morning so that the correct form would be

As we were going to work this morning, an accident occurred. Here the clause *As we were going to work this morning* modifies the verb *occurred*. Compare the following:

Wrong	*Right*
Standing at the window, the soldiers passed the house.	While I was standing at the window, the soldiers passed the house.
Having received the message, it was decided to go.	Having received the message, they decided to go.
Soon after leaving the boat, it sank.	Soon after we left the boat, it sank.

Very often a verbal noun is modified by a noun or a pronoun as in the sentence *Mary's opening the door startled me.* This modifier should always be in the possessive case and not in the objective case as so frequently happens. You would not say *I remember him message* and you can readily see that *I remember him telling us about it* would also be incorrect. Be sure to use the possessive pronoun and say *I remember his telling us about it.* Compare the following:

Wrong	*Right*
Why do you object to *me* going?	Why do you object to *my* going?
Pardon *us* asking if you received the message.	Pardon *our* asking if you received the message.
We did not know of *John* going to town.	We did not know of *John's* going to town.
There is no doubt of *him* being a good workman.	There is no doubt of *his* being a good workman.
I depend upon *you* keeping your promise.	I depend upon *your* keeping your promise.
Do you approve of *me* going into the grocery business?	Do you approve of *my* going into the grocery business?
It was *she* having gone away so suddenly that provoked us.	It was *her* having gone away so suddenly that provoked us.

— —

EXERCISE X

50. Directions.—(1) Write five sentences containing infinitives used correctly. (2) Construct five sentences in which you use verbals correctly.

Draw a line underneath each infinitive and each verbal.

OMISSION OF THE VERB OR OF PART OF THE VERB

51. If you will note carefully the matter you read you may be surprised to see how frequently a verb or some part of a verb is omitted, the reader being left to supply missing words. Sometimes, such omissions are allowable, or even commendable, but frequently they cause the sentence to be ungrammatical or ambiguous in meaning. Be careful not to omit words essential to the thought. Never leave out any verb or other part of speech if the omission makes the sentence either indefinite or ambiguous. Note that such sentences as the following are incorrect:

He says he *has* not and he *will* not *do* it.
I *want* to see him more than Henry.

In the first illustration it is necessary to express the verb *done* after *has not;* for *do,* the form used after *will,* cannot be used with *has,* and the complete verb must be expressed. The sentence, written correctly, reads, *He says he has not done it and he will not do it.*

The meaning of the second sentence is doubtful, for one cannot determine whether it means *I want to see him more than I want to see Henry,* or *I want to see him more than Henry wants to see him.* The thought cannot be misunderstood if it is expressed in one of these ways.

Incorrect	*Correct*
He asked me to do what I should not.	He asked me to do something that I should not do.
We want to see him more than Mary.	We want to see him more than we want to see Mary.
She never has and I fear she never will be fond of music.	She never has been fond of music and I fear she never will be.
He always has, and apparently always will be ready to help.	He always has been, and apparently always will be, ready to help.
While driving to town, the car ran into a telephone post.	While they were driving to town, they ran the car into a telephone post.
I told him to do what I have,	I told him to do what I have done,

CORRECTING ERRORS IN SENTENCES

52. Directions.—In each sentence in Exercise XI occurs an error in connection with the use of an infinitive or a verbal, or some necessary verb form is omitted. Determine wherein the error lies. Then write the correct form of each sentence.

EXERCISE XI

1. Why should he try to always cheat you?
2. Pardon me asking if you received the message.
3. She went to the concert but I didn't care to.
4. On receiving the plans, the work was started at once.
5. The work is something I have never done and never will.
6. Owing two months' rent, the landlord levied on my goods.
7. Will you pledge yourself to loyally and faithfully support our country?
8. I have told him several times how to do the work but I never shall again.
9. When almost exhausted help was sent to us.
10. What is the use of you saying that?
11. The foreman has not and will not agree to the demands of the men.
12. Not having the work finished, the foreman told the men to work overtime.
13. Jack singing was not admired.
14. James wished to in this way gain friends.
15. I think you do your work better than your brother.
16. They told us to quietly go through the house.

EXERCISE XII

53. Directions.—Write a letter of at least 150 words from some town in your state. Assume that you are visiting this town and write a description of it. Tell how the town is laid out, and describe some of the principal streets or buildings. Also tell what you have done since you came to the town.

Arrange your letter according to the suggestions given in the preceding lessons, being careful to use marks of punctuation and capital letters wherever they are necessary.

Apply what you have learned concerning the correct uses of verbs, nouns, pronouns, and other words. Try to avoid any of

the errors to which your attention has been called. Thoughtful reading of your letter after you have written it, should enable you to determine whether or not it is clear and expresses the ideas you wish it to express.

Aim to have your letter interesting and to make your descriptions vivid. Write the letter as you would like to have it written to you.

REVIEW EXERCISE

(1) Copy the following story and supply all needed capital letters and marks of punctuation.

(2) Select from the story fifteen nouns and tell about each one whether it is in the singular number or the plural number.

(3) Find and copy: (*a*) a complex sentence; (*b*) a compound sentence composed of three simple sentences; (*c*) a compound sentence with the first part complex.

(4) Make a list of fifteen verbs used in the story and tell the tense of each verb you mention.

Perseverance Wins

(Part 3)

last year i went to europe on one of the finest vessels that ever plowed the waters of the atlantic we had pleasant weather the greater part of the voyage but toward the end a terrible storm arose that the ship with all on board did not sink was due wholly to the captain the storm was terrific i shudder even now as i recall it every mast was laid low the rudder was almost useless and a great leak was filling the ship with water

the crew were strong and willing men the mates were practical seamen of the first class and every thing possible was done to save the ship after they had pumped for one whole night with the water still gaining upon them the sailors gave up in despair and prepared to take to the boats this was mutinous moreover no small boat as they should have known could possibly live in such a sea and wind

the captain who had been below examining his charts now came on deck as he perceived the purpose of the men he shouted a command that i distinctly heard above the roar of the waves every man to his post it was surprising to see those men bow before his strong will and hurry back to the pumps the captain then passed me as he started below to look for the leak

how far are we from land captain is there any hope of saving the vessel

as i waited anxiously for his reply he looked at me then at the other passengers who had crowded around and rebukingly said yes sir so long as one inch of this deck remains above water there is hope when that fails i shall abandon the vessel but not before nor shall one of the crew everything shall be done to save the ship if we fail it will not be our fault bear a hand every one of you at the pumps

(To Be Continued)

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 13)

THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ADVERB

THEIR USES AND DISTINCTIONS

1. Adjectives and adverbs are similar in function, for both are used as modifiers—both help to point out more definitely what is denoted by the word to which they refer; that is, the word they modify. They differ in some respects, however, so that you should be able to distinguish accurately between them.

An **adjective** is a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

These uses may readily be seen in the following sentences:

ADJECTIVES

Many large red CHERRIES grow on *that* TREE.
That old MAN seems very *tired* and *feeble.*
"Poor ME!" he exclaimed. "Does *no* ONE want me?"
The earliest TRAIN goes at *five* O'CLOCK.
A wide winding RIVER ran through *the beautiful* VALLEY.
The narrow muddy ROAD was *difficult* to travel.
The BOOK, *old* and *torn,* was thrown away.

ADVERBS

The horse RAN *rapidly* down the street.
We *always* SEND the children *early.*
The men WILL *not* STAY *away* from the factory.
"I am *extremely* TIRED," he said.
She seemed *so* FEEBLE that I went to help her.
The shops closed *very* EARLY this afternoon.

2. As a rule, neither adjectives nor adverbs present much difficulty. Careless persons, however, sometimes confuse

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

I T 268—22

them and use an adverb when an adjective is required, or they use an adjective when an adverb is necessary. Until you are certain you have formed the habit of using these terms correctly, you must watch your speech carefully. The following explanations will help you to distinguish between them:

3. Position of the Adjective.—Adjectives may occupy different positions with respect to the noun or the pronoun that they modify. They may be used *adjunctively, appositively,* or *predicatively.*

The most common use of the adjective is that in which the adjective precedes the word it modifies, or its **adjunctive** use, as in the sentence *Those large sour apples make good pies.* Here the adjectives *those, large,* and *sour* precede the noun *apples,* which they modify; and the adjective *good* precedes the noun *pies,* which it modifies. Other illustrations of the adjunctive use of the adjective are:

Ten small BOYS went to *the* CAMP near *the* LAKE.
This old WOMAN lost *several* SONS in *the* WAR.
Many wild ANIMALS live in *that dark* FOREST.

Frequently, it is desired to make emphatic some quality possessed by a noun or a pronoun. When such is the case, the adjective may follow the word it modifies, or be used **appositively.** In *The boys, tired and hungry, reached home at nine o'clock,* the adjectives *tired* and *hungry* modify the noun *boys.* They bring out more emphatically the condition of the boys than would be the case were the adjectives to precede this noun as in the form, *The tired, hungry boys reached home at nine o'clock.* Note the following illustrations of the appositive use of adjectives:

The WOMAN, *beautiful* as well as *intelligent,* attracted us.
HE, *poor* and *blind,* deserves our pity.
The FOREMAN, *abrupt* but *capable,* caused the work to be finished in time.
That old MAN, *poor* and *forlorn,* needs our help.

The **predicate adjective** always completes the meaning of some such verb as *is, are, was, have been, appear, become, seem,* and restricts the meaning of the subject of the verb. For instance, in *The work is very pleasant,* the adjective

pleasant completes the meaning of the verb *is* and modifies the subject of this verb, the noun *work*. *Pleasant,* therefore, is a predicate adjective.

Consider carefully the predicate adjectives in the sentences that follow:

He seems both *skilful* and *intelligent.*
They became very *tired* while listening to him.
That workman was not *dependable.*
That little girl is *beautiful.*
The old man appeared *tired* and *lonely.*

It will be noted that, in all these illustrations, the italicized adjectives restrict the meaning of some noun or pronoun—they help to point out more definitely the qualities possessed by some person or thing and narrow their application.

4. What Adverbs Signify.—There are certain ideas that are usually expressed by adverbs. These are:

Time: John went to town *yesterday.* Those men are *always* on time.

Manner: The old man walks *slowly.* Mary skates *gracefully.*

Place: He seldom comes *here. Everywhere* we found new objects of interest.

Cause: *Why* did he fail in his work?

Degree: The apples are *decidedly* sour. He walks *much* faster than I do.

Doubt: *Possibly* I can go with you. *Perhaps* he will come soon.

Affirmation: *Yes,* he told us the story this morning. *Certainly* she can attend the concert.

Negation or Denial: *No* I will *not* see him. The boys are *not* going to the Scout meeting.

Interrogation: *Where* did you get this money? *When* are you coming home?

As has previously been stated, an adverb always modifies the meaning of some verb, adjective, or adverb. Note the following:

The roses faded *quickly* in the morning sun. (Adverb modifying a verb)

I am *rather* glad that he did not stay. (Adverb modifying an adjective)

The car ran *so* slowly that we soon passed it. (Adverb modifying another adverb)

5. Similarity of Adjectives and Adverbs.—The adjective and the adverb are sometimes alike in form, the part of speech to which the word belongs depending upon the use of the word. For example, in *She sings well*, the word *well* is an adverb because it modifies the verb *sings;* while in *She is well, well* is an adjective because it modifies the pronoun *she*. Other illustrations of words which may be either adjectives or adverbs follow:

Adjectives	*Adverbs*
My watch is *slow*.	Drive *slow* (or *slowly*).
We dug a very *deep* well.	We went *deep* (or *deeply*) into the mines.
The men came at a *late* hour.	Why did you stay so *late?*
He went to every country far and *near*.	As we drew *near*, we saw there had been an accident.
The *early* morning hours are best for study.	Every one went away *early*.

A little consideration will enable you to think of numerous words that may be used as adjectives or as adverbs and you might find it interesting to make a list of words of this kind.

Although, as just explained, many adjectives and adverbs are alike in form, there are also many which, while they correspond in form, differ somewhat, the adverb having the additional syllable *ly*. Thus, in *That flower is very sweet, sweet* is an adjective; while in *The bird sang sweetly, sweetly* is an adverb. Care should be exercised in using words of this kind as errors in their use frequently occur.

Further illustrations of adjectives and adverbs similar in form are:

Adjectives	*Adverbs*
She is a *remarkable* woman.	He is a *remarkably* bright man.
This is an *easy* lesson.	I learned this lesson very *easily*.
She looks *cold*.	She looked *coldly* at us as we passed.
He seemed very *sad* this morning.	They *sadly* left the grave of their loved one.
Be very *gentle* with the child.	Always speak *gently* to the child.
Why are you so *angry?*	Why did you speak so *angrily?*
This is a *warm* coat.	The children were *warmly* dressed.
A *loud* sound was heard.	He called *loudly* to the men.

SELECTING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

6. Directions.—Make a list of the adjectives and the adverbs used in the sentences given in Exercise 1, and show what each adjective and each adverb modifies. List the adjectives and the adverbs separately.

EXAMPLES.—

Adjectives	*Element Modified*	*Adverbs*	*Element Modified*
the	electrification	rapidly	growing
railway	lines		
a	movement		
growing	movement		

EXERCISE 1

The electrification of railway lines is a rapidly growing movement of the present day; a road so equipped spares passengers many of the worst discomforts usually connected with travel. It is predicted that heavy passenger trains running at rather long intervals and drawn by powerful locomotives will soon give place to the more frequent service of trains composed of from two to four motor cars. That would mean that the railway service is going to approximate to the trolley service, with which it has, in numerous localities, come into active competition and close combination. It was the invention of the dynamo that made possible the utilization of electricity to drive motor cars, and, once tested out, the latter speedily displaced the horse car; 70 per cent. of the street-railway mileage of this country was run by animal power in 1890, while today the electric car is practically universal.

COMPARISONS

7. Adjectives and adverbs undergo few changes in form. They are compared, however, so as to express different degrees of quality, the term **comparison** being applied to these changes. There are three degrees of comparison—the *positive,* the *comparative,* and the *superlative.* When the mere possession of a quality is denoted, the **positive degree** is used; as, *fine, large, sour, loud, beautiful, fast, pleasantly.* When two objects are compared and a greater degree or a less degree of the quality is denoted, the **comparative degree** is used; as, *finer, larger, sourer, louder, more beautiful, faster,*

more pleasantly. When three or more objects are compared and the greatest or least degree of quality is indicated, the **superlative degree** is used; as, *finest, largest, sourest, loudest, most beautiful, fastest, most pleasantly*.

8. Usually the comparative degree is formed by adding the syllable *er* to the positive form, as in *faster* (*fast* + *er*), *shorter* (*short* + *er*), *sooner* (*soon* + *er*); while the superlative degree is formed by adding the syllable *est* to the positive form, as in *fastest* (*fast* + *est*), *shortest* (*short* + *est*), *soonest* (*soon* + *est*). Frequently, however, the comparative degree is formed by prefixing the word *more* or *less* to the positive form, as in *more helpful, less joyous, more kindly, less thoughtful*. The superlative degree is formed by prefixing the word *most* or *least* to the positive degree, as in *most helpful, least joyous, most kindly, least thoughtful*. There are also some adjectives and adverbs that do not follow any regular method but that are compared irregularly. *Good, bad,* and *much* are words of this kind. Note their comparison:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
much	more	most

The following table contains further illustrations of the different methods of comparison:

Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
new	newer	newest
great	greater	greatest
slow	slower	slowest
often	oftener	oftenest
interesting	less interesting	least interesting
dangerous	more dangerous	most dangerous
calmly	more calmly	most calmly
much	more	most
many	more	most
little	less	least
ill	worse	worst
evil	worse	worst
well	better	best

9. Points to Be Observed in Comparison.—Observe closely the following suggestions for they will aid you greatly in using the correct forms of adjectives and adverbs:

1. Avoid the use of double comparisons as in *most beautifulest, more brighter, more happier, more healthier, most pleasantest.*

2. Some adjectives and adverbs, because of their meaning, do not admit of comparison. The following are examples:

ADJECTIVES: wooden, golden, sufficient, parallel, homeless, dead, empty, right, eternal, unique, spotless, total, chief, present.

ADVERBS: absolutely, completely, extremely, continually, entirely, sufficiently, supremely, universally, essentially, here, there, then, now.

3. Special care should be taken to use the comparative degree when comparing two things and to use the superlative degree when comparing more than two things. It would be correct to say *Which of you two is the taller?* but *Which of you two is the tallest?* would be wrong, for here only two persons are compared. In *Frank is the tallest boy in the crowd,* the superlative *tallest* is properly used because in this instance Frank is compared with a number of boys.

Of my two sisters, Kate is the *younger* (not *youngest*).
Do you like baseball? Yes, but I like football *better* (not *best*).
This man is the *more thoughtful* (not *most thoughtful*) of the two.
The *oldest* (not *older*) of the three girls was away at college.
Which can skate the *better* (not *best*), Catherine or Olive?
Which is the *more* (not *most*) desirable, health or wealth?

4. Great care should be taken to apply properly the terms of comparison. The superlative degree requires that the object to which it applies shall be included in the objects with which it is compared, while the comparative degree requires that the object to which it applies shall not be included.

It is wrong to say *Iron is more useful than all the metals,* for this implies that iron is not a metal, whereas it is a metal. It would be right to say *Iron is more useful than any other metal* or *Iron is the most useful of all the metals.* The form *He is the oldest of his friends* is wrong, for this makes him one of his own friends, but *He is older than any of his friends* is

correct. In the following sentences the comparative and the superlative degree are correctly used:

Philadelphia is larger than any other city in Pennsylvania.
Philadelphia is the largest city in Pennsylvania.
This man is older than any other man in Congress.
This man is the oldest man in Congress.
He is more active than any of his companions.
He is the most active of the boys.
Of all the trees in the grove, this one is the largest.
He has a more cheerful disposition than any of his friends.

PRACTICE IN THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

10. Directions.—1. Write the comparison of each of the adjectives and the adverbs given in Exercise II. Use *er* and *est* or *more* and *most*, whichever you think sounds the better. Compare five of the words by using *less* and *least*. Refer to the dictionary for the correct spelling of the comparative and the superlative. Observe that some of these adjectives and adverbs are irregular in their comparison.

2. Select ten of the adjectives and adverbs given in Exercise II. Then construct sentences in which you use correctly either the comparative or the superlative form of these words.

EXAMPLES.—

1.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
small	smaller	smallest
cheerfully	more cheerfully	most cheerfully
important	less important	least important
old	older / elder	oldest / eldest

2. My position is less important than yours.

EXERCISE II

1. bad
2. big
3. bitterly
4. briefly
5. careful
6. dry
7. efficiently
8. evil
9. far
10. generous
11. good
12. handsome
13. hot
14. ill
15. pretty
16. prompt
17. rapidly
18. sad
19. slow
20. studious
21. well

11. Singular and Plural Adjectives.—The adjectives *this* and *that* have the plural forms *these* and *those*, respectively; as *this book, these books; that automobile, those automobiles.* No other adjective is inflected for number. Some adjectives, however, can be used only with singular nouns, while others can be used only with plural nouns. *Each, every, one,* should modify singular nouns; while such adjectives as *two, five, several, many, few,* should be used with plural nouns. These words are used correctly in the sentences that follow:

One BOY is all I need.
Each CHILD should bring his lunch.
Every LEAF and *every* FLOWER had fallen from the bush.
Two MEN were in the office.
He paid *five* DOLLARS for the hat.
We lost *several* PIECES of machinery.
Many MEN do their work carelessly.
There were *few* WOMEN in the mill.

Never use such expressions as *these kind, those sort, several pound, She is five foot tall, They came ten mile.* You may say, however, *I caught a five-pound bass, Bring me a ten-foot pole, It is a three-quart pail.* In these constructions, the plural adjective is used with a singular noun to form a compound word.

12. Double Negatives.—You have learned that sentences are used to affirm and to deny. A common error consists in the use of two words of denial in the same sentence or clause, as in *I haven't no money.* Here the speaker intends to express the idea that he possesses no money, but the use of the two negatives *haven't* and *no* destroys this idea and gives the sentence an affirmative meaning. The correct way of expressing this thought is *I have no money.*

Such errors as this can be avoided if one becomes familiar with the principal negatives and is careful not to use in the same clause two words of negative meaning. The most important negatives are *no, not, never, nothing,* and *none,* but the words *scarcely, hardly, barely, but* meaning only, and *only* are also regarded as somewhat negative in meaning and should

never follow a negative. Compare the following incorrect and correct forms:

Incorrect	*Correct*
We discovered that there *wouldn't* be *no* parade.	We discovered that there would be *no* parade.
He *didn't* say *nothing* in reply to my question.	He *didn't* say *anything* in reply to my question.
The girls *hadn't* been there *but* a few minutes when the accident occurred.	The girls had been there *but* a few minutes when the accident occurred.
He *wasn't never* ready when we called for him.	He was *never* ready when we called for him.
I *didn't* see *none* of the men.	I *didn't* see *any* of the men, *or* I saw *none* of the men.
There *weren't only* ten persons at the lecture.	There were *only* ten persons at the lecture.
The boy was so hoarse that he *couldn't barely* speak.	The boy was so hoarse that he could *barely* speak.
The men *haven't* been able to get *no* work.	The men have *not* been able to get work.
This book *isn't* very good, I *don't* think.	I think this book *isn't* very good.

IMPROPER USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

13. Confusion of Adjectives and Adverbs.—In Art. **5,** attention is called to the similarity in form of many adjectives and adverbs. This similarity frequently leads to the improper substitution of an adverb for an adjective in the predicate of a sentence. Errors of this kind are especially common after such verbs as *be, seem, appear, become, look, feel, grow, get, turn, remain, stay, continue, sound, smell, taste, stand,* and *eat.*

Whether you should use an adjective or an adverb with these verbs depends on the meaning to be expressed. If the condition or state of the person or thing named by the subject is to be denoted, an adjective should be used; but if the manner of the action expressed by the verb is to be described, an adverb should be employed. The following sentences will serve to illustrate how adverbs are often used instead of

adjectives after certain verbs, the adjective that should be used being placed in marks of parenthesis in each instance:

Such a remark sounds very *uncharitably* (*uncharitable*).

The boy remained *quietly* (*quiet*) while the foreman explained the work.

The soldier stood *erectly* (*erect*) at his captain's command.

He felt *confidently* (*confident*) that the candidate would be elected.

She has looked *unhappily* (*unhappy*) for a long time.

The audience sat *calmly* (*calm*) during all of the speaker's tirade.

How *sweetly* (*sweet*) the child sleeps in his little bed.

Such weak applause appeared *ungratefully* (*ungrateful*) to the performers.

She felt so *miserably* (*miserable*) after her serious illness that her friends were discouraged.

Although the adverbs in the predicates of these sentences are used incorrectly, there are times, as already mentioned, when adverbs may be correctly used with verbs of this kind. This is when the verbs express action and not state.

The teacher looked *sharply* at the child when he was disobedient.

The boy appeared *hurriedly* from around the corner.

The merchant felt *carefully* over the material for any defects.

In these sentences, the italicized adverbs are used to describe the manner in which the action expressed by the verb is performed. No reference is made to the subject, and the action, therefore, is more prominent than condition or state.

It will be noted from these illustrations that where the adjective is required, the verb is almost equivalent in meaning to the verb *be*. For instance, the first sentence, *Such a remark sounds very uncharitable,* means practically the same as *Such a remark is very uncharitable*. If you can substitute some form of the verb *be* for the verb in cases of this kind, the verb should be followed by an adjective, not an adverb.

14. An error equally as important as the one just discussed is the use of adjectives where adverbs are required. Mistakes of this kind occur very often, even in the conversation of persons who know better, but who fall into the error through carelessness. A safe rule to follow is, *Use an adjective only when a word is required to describe the meaning of some noun or pronoun.* Observe the following sentences:

She can do the work *neater* than I can do it.

The girl seems *real* happy in her new home.

Neater in the first of these sentences is the comparative degree of the adjective *neat*. It is used here instead of the adverb *more neatly* and is therefore incorrect. The manner of the action is to be described in this sentence rather than the quality of the work, and for this reason the adverb *more neatly* should be used in place of the adjective *neater*. The word *real* is never an adverb, yet it is often used incorrectly as an adverb in the sense of *really* or *very*. This adjective is therefore used incorrectly in the second sentence, because it modifies the adjective *happy*. It should be replaced by the adverb *very*.

The incorrect adjectives in the following sentences should be replaced by the adverbs enclosed in marks of parenthesis:

We could not help noticing how *heavy* (*heavily*) the man walked.

He could detect the errors in the work *easier* (*more easily*) than he could the merits.

This author writes very *clear* (*clearly*) but not very *interesting* (*interestingly*).

Lately we noticed that the dog acted *different* (*differently*).

It was plainly seen that the merchant did not measure *accurate* (*accurately*).

The boy treated his sister very *mean* (*meanly*).

He spoke very *silly* (*foolishly*) about the affair.

The searching party were *near* (*nearly*) dead when they returned.

He plays very *good* (*well*) indeed.

He was *terrible* (*terribly*) angry.

They speak English very *bad* (*badly, poorly*).

The child talks *plainer* (*more plainly*) than he did a few days ago.

She can do *considerable* (*considerably*) more work than I can.

CORRECTING ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

15. Directions.—Each sentence in Exercise III contains some adjective or adverb used incorrectly. Determine what is wrong and then write the sentences correctly.

EXERCISE III

1. His work is more neater than Mary's.
2. The *Times* contained the most complete report that has been published.
3. I asked the grocer to send me ten pound of sugar but he said he could send but five pound.
4. John replied, "I haven't never been told how to do that work."
5. He works very rapid, but he does not do his work good.
6. Mr. Jackson is a better workman than any man in his shop.
7. Mother asked, "Which of the two girls is the best cook?" Tom replied, "Elizabeth is the poorest."
8. After we had walked five mile, we saw several kind of ripe apples.
9. The boys asked the farmer for some milk but he said he hadn't no milk for them.
10. We went into the garden and picked the most beautifulest flowers.
11. This box is the squarest of any you have made.
12. I felt badly all day about the accident but father said he often had accidents of those sort.
13. We found a most hopeless case in the mill district.
14. Speak louder or they can't never hear you.
15. The foreman told us he couldn't find but five of these kind of bolts.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS FREQUENTLY MISUSED

16. In an earlier lesson, attention was called to some adjectives and adverbs that are used incorrectly by many persons. Other words frequently confounded are here given.

ADJECTIVES

Apt, Likely, Liable.—As these three words are often confused, it is well to learn just when each one is proper. *Apt* means quick, inclined, or having a habitual tendency. *Likely* refers to something regarded as probable. *Liable* properly implies openness or exposure to something burdensome or disadvantageous. The following sentences show how these words may be employed:

He is *likely* to come at any time.
You are *liable* to arrest for speeding your car.
The child did not realize that glass is *apt* to break.
The teacher said that Mary was an *apt* pupil.

Another, Different.—Mistakes are not made so often in the use of these words themselves, as in the words that follow them. The conjunction *than* should not be used after *different* and the preposition *from* should not be used after *another*. *From* should follow *different* and *than* should be used after *another*. The following sentences are correct:

He is quite *another* man *than* his brother.
In all his tastes and habits, he was *different from* his brother.
I tried *another* plan *than* that and I was successful.
The entertainment was *different from* what we expected.

Both, Each, Every, All.—When two persons or things are thought of as acting or being together, or as acting harmoniously, *both* is better than *each*. But if they act separately, first one and then the other, or if they are opposed to each other, *each* is to be preferred.

When reference is made to more than two persons or things, *each* is used if they are taken distributively—first one and then another until all are taken. *Every*, like *each*, takes all without exception, but it is less specific and marks single individuals less distinctly than does *each*. *All* considers the units as making up a total that is treated as a unit; it takes the units collectively, not distributively, as *each* and *every* take them. The correct uses of these words are illustrated in the following sentences:

Each day as it came brought its work and its play.
Every day of my life is occupied, and *each* day brings its sorrows and its joys.
Both sisters were beautiful, and *each* had many friends.
Each person fared differently, although *all* were equally blamable.
All men are sinners, and *every* man must answer for his sins.
All men love praise, but not *every* man deserves praise.

Certain, Most Certain.—*Certain* means fixed, settled, not to be doubted nor denied, thoroughly established. Therefore, if a thing is certain it can not be more so, and to say

more certain or *most certain* is incorrect. These two sentences are incorrect:

I am *most certain* that he will arrive tonight.
We felt *more certain* of his ability than he did.

They should be changed to read,

I am *certain* that he will arrive tonight.
We felt *more confident* of his ability than he did.

Credible, Creditable.—*Credible* means capable or worthy of being believed or credited, trustworthy. *Creditable* is sometimes confused with it because of the similarity of form. However, *creditable* means deserving or worthy of credit, praiseworthy, and should not be used instead of *credible*. Note the following sentences:

We all believed his story as it appeared *credible*.
No one would regard such an act as honorable or *creditable*.

Continual, Continuous.—*Continual* means occurring in steady and rapid succession, very frequent, often repeated. *Continuous* means without break or interruption, unbroken. Note the difference between the following sentences:

The *continual* barking of the dog warned us of danger.
The calls for aid were *continual* and they were at last heard.
A long distance from the falls, we could hear the *continuous* roar of the water.
A *continuous* road stretched before us.

Deadly, Deathly.—*Deadly* means causing or capable of causing death; aiming or willing to destroy. *Deathly* refers to that which is death-like in appearance. The following sentences show the difference between these words:

He dealt his opponent a *deadly* blow.
A *deathly* pallor spread over her face.

Decided, Decisive.—*Decided* denotes that which is definite or beyond mistake, doubt, or question; when applied to persons, it characterizes one that is resolute or determined. *Decisive* is usually applied to things, and means final, conclusive. These uses are illustrated in the following sentences:

He is a man of *decided* opinions.
In the most *decisive* battle of the campaign, the general was wounded.

Either, Neither, Both.—Each of these words applies to but two objects, but they are often misused and applied to three or more. *Either* means one or the other; *both* means one and the other; *neither* means not one nor the other. These words are used correctly in the following:

Both boys applied for the position, but *neither* one secured it.
Either one of your parents may sign your enrolment card.
Neither applicant told of his experience, but *both* men mentioned the salary expected.

Every, Entire, Perfect.—Sometimes *every*, meaning each one, without exception, of a group, is used where *entire* or *perfect* is required. The sentence, *We have every confidence in the man* is incorrect and should read, *We have perfect confidence in the man*. Note the following correct uses:

He has *every* quality of success.
I have *perfect* confidence in his ability to complete the transaction.
My *entire* fortune is placed at your disposal.

Eminent, Imminent.—*Eminent* means lofty, prominent, distinguished; above others by birth, merit, talent, or virtue. *Imminent* applies to that which threatens to happen immediately, or is about to happen. These words may be used as follows:

The people's cause was championed by an *eminent* statesman.
Imminent danger loomed up before the travelers, but it did not dismay them.
We knew that discovery was *imminent*, but we could not retrace our steps.

First-Rate.—The term *first-rate* may be used as an adjective, but it should not be employed as an adverb. Therefore, such a sentence as *He plays first-rate* is incorrect, because *first-rate* is here used as an adverb. This word means of the highest efficiency, preeminent in quality, extremely good, and it is used correctly in the following:

He purchased a *first-rate* boat last summer.
That was a *first-rate* dinner you served us.

Healthy, Healthful, Wholesome.—These words are similar in meaning to a certain extent, but each one has certain uses in which the others are incorrect. *Healthy* means being

in a state of health, enjoying health, hale, sound, free from disease; as, *a healthy child*. In another sense, it means evincing health; as, *a healthy complexion*. *Healthful* means serving to promote health of body or mind; as, *a healthful climate*. *Wholesome* applies to that which is good for a person, whether physically or morally; as, *wholesome advice*. These words are used correctly in the following illustrations:

All the children seemed to be in a *healthy* condition.
A short time spent in this *healthful* air will do wonders for you.
The food was so *wholesome* and the climate so *healthful* that it was not long before we were *healthy* and strong.

Nice.—This is a word that is very much overworked. In the sense of pleasing, agreeable, delightful, good, kind, considerate, fine, pleasant, it is colloquial and should be avoided. Instead of *nice* in such sentences as *I received two nice letters today, We had a nice trip last summer, My employer was always nice to me,* use some more appropriate term to express the idea that you wish to bring out. *Nice* means discriminating, calling for close observation, minute analysis, delicate handling, tactful treatment. It also means susceptible to nice distinctions, or able to make them. It is used correctly in the sentences:

He makes *nice* distinctions in his choice of words.
We soon found that he had a *nice* ear for music.
The chemist performed a *nice* experiment in the presence of many interested spectators.

Plenty, Plentiful.—*Plenty* is a noun meaning the state of having abundance, particularly of comforts and necessaries. When it is used as an adjective in the sense of plentiful or abundant, it is colloquial or obsolete and should be avoided. Do not say *Cherries and other small fruits will be plenty this season,* but rather *Cherries and other small fruits will be plentiful this season*. *Plentiful* means yielding or containing plenty, fruitful, copious, abundant, ample. These two words are used correctly in the following sentences:

Our people have been living in peace and *plenty*.
Grain was *plentiful* that year and yet the price of flour was high.

Practical, Practicable.—A distinction that should be observed exists between these words. *Practical* means per-

taining to practice or action and is opposed to theoretical. *Practicable* means possible, or capable of being put into practice or action. That is *practicable* which can be accomplished; that is *practical* which can be actually turned to account. Note the following uses of these words:

They were engaged in discussing *practical* questions of the day.
His method of handling the matter proved to be a *practical* one.
It takes a *practical* mind to conceive of a plan so *practicable.*

Previous, Previously.—The adjective *previous* is sometimes used where the adverb *previously* is required. For example, in the sentence, *Previous to the arrival of the president, a great crowd thronged the building,* the word *previous,* although it is an adjective, modifies the meaning of the verb *thronged.* It should be changed to the adverb *previously.* The following sentences show how these words may be used:

That plan was discussed at a *previous* meeting.
Previously to the strike, a committee composed of men from both sides discussed the important issues.

Real, Very, Exceedingly.—*Real* is an adjective meaning genuine, not artificial. It is often used as an adverb in the sense of *very,* or *exceedingly,* but in this use it is incorrect. We should not say *real sorry, real pretty,* but *exceedingly sorry, very pretty.* The following sentences illustrate the correct use of this word:

I purchased a *real* alligator-skin purse.
The *real* reason for the increased price was the scarcity of the article.
His *real* name was not disclosed in the newspaper account.

Same, Similar.—The word *same* should be used when there is absolute identity, while *similar* should be employed when there is mere likeness. The following sentences show how these words should be used:

He is the *same* man as came to the office yesterday.
I am glad to know that your plans are *similar* to mine.

Many persons use *same* as a pronoun in the sense of *it* or *them,* but this use is now regarded as inelegant or crude and good writers avoid it. This word is used incorrectly in the

sentence, *The goods are now ready and we shall ship same on next steamer.* This thought should be given, *The goods are now ready and we shall ship them on the next steamer.*

Thick, Intimate.—When *thick* is used in the sense of *intimate, very friendly, familiar,* it is colloquial. This use of the word should therefore be avoided. Do not say, *The girls were very thick last winter,* but rather, *The girls were very intimate last winter.*

ADVERBS

Beastly.—We sometimes hear the word *beastly* used in the sense of disagreeably, very, miserably, but in this use it is to be avoided. Instead of saying, *It was a beastly hot day,* say *It was a very hot day. Beastly* in its correct use means brutal, low, vile, or degrading. It is used correctly in *He has beastly manners.*

Completely, Most Completely.—The adjective *complete* and the adverb *completely,* because of their meaning, cannot be modified, for when something is complete it can not be more or less so. Therefore, the expressions *more complete, most complete, more completely, most completely,* are incorrect. Do not say,

That is the *most complete* account that has been given to the public.
He explained the situation *more completely* than I expected.

In order to be correct, say,

That is the *most detailed* account that has been given to the public.
He explained the situation *more minutely* than I expected.

Desperately.—The word *desperately* is correct when reference is made to something that is almost beyond hope, for it means despairingly, rashly, forlornly, furiously, frantically. It should not be used in the sense of badly or extremely. Although we sometimes hear such an expression as *He is desperately ill,* it is better to say *He is very ill,* or *He is extremely ill. Desperately* is used correctly in the following:

He plunged *desperately* into the lake before we could restrain him.
Each side fought *desperately* during the entire day.

Everlastingly.—This word is sometimes used in the sense of very, extremely, uncomfortably, in order to make an expression emphatic or forcible, but it is incorrect in this use. We often hear such statements as *It was an everlastingly hot day* and *He was everlastingly criticized by his opponents.* In the first of these sentences *everlastingly* should be replaced by some such word as *extremely*, and in the second one it should be replaced by such a term as *severely, unmercifully*, etc.

Farther, Further.—*Farther* is the better term to use when reference is made to actual distance or to extent, whereas *further* should be used when the idea to be expressed is that of continuance. Note the following illustrations:

He went *farther* down the canyon than we did.
If you wish to discuss the subject *further*, please come to my office.

Formerly, Formally.—Both of these words are adverbs, but they are frequently confused, probably because of their similarity in pronunciation. *Formerly* means in times past; *formally*, in a formal manner or according to established rule or custom. These words are used correctly in the following sentences:

It was *formerly* the custom to crown the victor with an olive wreath.
The meeting was *formally* opened by the president.

Off Of.—The word *off* does not require the preposition *of* after it. Therefore *of* is unnecessary in the sentence, *The child fell off of the fence. Off of* should not be used in the sense of *from* as we sometimes see it. *Off* is used correctly in the following sentences:

He hurt his foot when he jumped *off* the wagon.
Please check my name *off* your list.

Only.—The word *only* causes considerable trouble, and much care should be exercised in using it. It is both an adjective and an adverb; and wherever used, it should be placed as near as possible to the word it modifies. It is correctly placed in the following sentences:

She could *only* shake her head and wring her hands.
They paid me *only* the small sum of ten dollars for my work.
They stayed at the office for *only* a few minutes.
That man will be successful *only* so long as he is honest.

Overly.—*Overly* is often used in the sense of *extremely* or *too,* but this term is not permissible in good English. Instead of saying, *It is not overly ripe,* we should say, *It is not too ripe.*

Simply, Really.—*Simply* is often used where really, truly, certainly, etc. would express the intended meaning. *Simply* means in a simple manner or state, foolishly, and should not be used in the sense of *really,* which means in a real manner or actually. Instead of saying, *The girl was simply exhausted,* we should say *The girl was really exhausted.* The following sentences show the correct uses of these words:

The girl was dressed *simply* but neatly.
The sunset last evening was *really* wonderful.

Since, Ago.—*Since* should not refer to time long past; *ago,* however, may be used for any past time. Thus we may say,

He came to this country several years *ago.*
These letters arrived only a few minutes *since.*
Many years *ago* there was a very rich king called Crœsus.

Sometime, Some Time.—Care should be taken to distinguish between the adverb *sometime* and the expression *some time.* Note how these terms are used in the following:

Sometime I expect to take a trip across the continent.
For *some time* I was puzzled about what I should do.

Sure, Surely.—*Sure* is an adjective and should not be used in the sense of *surely.* Although we often hear such a sentence as *Sure, I shall go,* it is incorrect and should be changed to read, *Surely, I shall go.* In the following sentences, the distinction between these two words is shown:

I was very *sure* about the truth of the statement I made.
He was *surely* the man for the place.
Surely, you will not endure such treatment any longer.

Thence.—*Thence* is an adverb that means *from there.* Since the preposition *from* is implied in its meaning, this preposition should not be expressed before *thence.* The following sentences show the correct use of this word:

He departed *thence* before dawn.
We bade him go *thence* at once.

This Here, That There.—Do not say *this here man, that there sample,* etc., but rather *this man, that sample,* etc. *Here* and *there* are superfluous in such expressions.

Whence.—This word, like thence, embodies the preposition *from* in its meaning, for it means from where. Therefore it should not be preceded by *from.* Do not say,

We did not know *from whence* they came.
From whence comest thou?

You should say,

We did not know *whence* they came.
Whence comest thou?

Worse, More.—We sometimes hear the adverb *worse* used where the adverb *more* is required. Do not say *I want to go worse than ever,* but rather *I want to go more than ever. He deserves punishment more than you do* is correct, although some persons would incorrectly say, *He deserves punishment worse than you do.*

IMPROPER FORMS OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

17. The wrong forms of adjectives and adverbs are frequently used. Note carefully the following list and avoid using the incorrect forms.

Wrong	*Right*	*Wrong*	*Right*
anywheres	anywhere	nothing like nowhere near	not nearly
complected	complexioned		
everywheres	everywhere	nowheres	nowhere
firstly	first	someplace	somewhere
illy	ill	somewheres	somewhere
kind of	rather or somewhat	thusly	thus
muchly	much	unbeknown unbeknownst	unknown
not much not muchly	not at all	way	away

Those boys go *everywhere* (not *everywheres*).

Mr. James is a dark *complexioned* (not *complected*) man.

The presidential vote was *not nearly* (not *nowhere near*) so large as usual.

DISCRIMINATING IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

18. Directions.—Read carefully the sentences in Exercise IV and determine which of the words enclosed in marks of parenthesis are the correct ones to use. Then write each sentence, using the proper word.

EXAMPLE.—

1. It was some time before we heard of the accident.

EXERCISE IV

1. It was (sometime, some time) before we heard of the accident.
2. To the doctor's question, the child replied, "(Sure, Surely) I'll take the medicine."
3. (This here, This) car is the best you can buy for that price.
4. The smallest girl and the oldest boy resemble their father, as they are (light complected, light complexioned).
5. Will you tell me (whence, from whence) the message came?
6. If that child jumps (off of, off) the car before it stops, he is (apt, likely, liable) to get hurt.
7. "This is (beastly, very) cold weather we are having," said John.
8. As he turned in his seat, he saw us, but he did not seem (overly, extremely) desirous of talking to us.
9. If you desire to be (healthy, healthful, wholesome), you must always eat (healthy, healthful, wholesome) food and take plenty of (healthy, healthful, wholesome) exercise.
10. Dinner was (nowhere near, not nearly) ready when we came into the house.
11. A few years ago aerial and submarine navigation were not considered (practical, practicable), but now we know (different, differently).
12. In that town, both money and work were (plenty, plentiful), but still we found many starving.
13. "I am (real, very) glad you came," said my friend.
14. Your answer to the problem was (the same as, similar to) mine, but it was not correct.
15. During their boyhood days and their young manhood, the two men were very (thick, intimate).

19. Directions.—Look up in the dictionary the pronunciation and the meaning of each adjective and each adverb listed in Exercise V. Then indicate the pronunciation of each word, give a definition for it, and use the word correctly in a sentence.

EXERCISE V

1. economic
2. materially
3. efficient
4. mechanical
5. genially
6. inquisitive
7. stupid
8. unseemly
9. generally
10. noisy

THE PREPOSITION AND THE CONJUNCTION

PREPOSITIONS

20. Only a comparatively few of the words in the English language are used as prepositions and these always have the same form and perform the same work—they introduce phrases, the phrase consisting of the preposition and some noun or pronoun used as the object of the preposition together with any intervening modifier that the object may have. The preposition usually precedes its object and brings this object into relation with the element modified by the phrase. For instance, in *He is a man of great ambition,* the preposition *of* introduces the phrase *of great ambition* and brings its object *ambition* into relation with the noun *man,* which the phrase modifies.

21. Words Used as Prepositions.—A list of the words most frequently used as prepositions follows:

aboard	before	from	to
about	behind	in	toward
above	below	into	towards
across	beneath	notwithstanding	under
after	beside	of	underneath
against	besides	on	until
along	between	over	unto
amid	beyond	per	up
amidst	but	round	upon
among	by	since	via
around	down	through	with
at	during	throughout	within
athwart	for	till	without

22. Groups of Words Used as Prepositions.—Each of the following groups of words is generally treated as one preposition:

aboard of	in addition to	instead of
according to	in consequence of	on account of
as to	in reference to	out of
because of	in regard to	with reference to
by means of	in respect to	with regard to
by reason of	in spite of	with respect to

23. The Proper Preposition.—The chief error in connection with prepositions lies in the use of wrong prepositions after words, for there are certain words that are usually followed by certain prepositions. Changing the preposition changes the meaning, so that if the wrong preposition is used, the speaker does not convey the meaning he intended.

The following alphabetical list has been arranged with the purpose of aiding you in your selection of the proper preposition. Refer to this list frequently.

about *with* or *in*. The stream abounds *with* fish—is plentifully supplied. His speech abounds *in* sharp sayings—is rich in them.

accomplish *by* diligence; *with* difficulty; *under* hard conditions

acquire *by* labor; *with* difficulty

acquit *of* a charge, a sin, or a crime

adapted *to*—intentionally fitted or adjusted to; *for*—fitted for by nature. He readily adapts himself *to* changed circumstances. It was a climate ill adapted *for* the raising of wheat.

admit *to* our friendship; *into* our residence; *within* the fortification; *of* discussion

advantage *of* or *over* another; *in* position or argument. The advantage was *with* the enemy. It was advantageous *to* me.

agree *in* opinion *with* a person; *to* a proposal or stipulation; *on* or *upon* a statement of principles, rules; *among* ourselves

alien *to* (or more rarely *from*) our nation or laws; aliens *in* our country; *among* our people

angry *with* or *toward* a person; *at* a thing

annoyed *with* a person; *at* a thing; *about* the matter; *by* his selfish conduct

anxious *for* a friend's return; *about, in regard to,* or *concerning* the future or the result

arrive *at* or *in* one place *from* another; *at* our destination; *upon* the scene

ask a person *for* a thing; a thing *of* or *from* a person; *after* or *about* one's health, welfare, friends

authority *over* a person; *on* a certain subject; *for* a statement

bind *by* a contract; *to* a pillar, a service; *with* or *in* chains; *under* a penalty; a wreath *about, around,* or *round* the head; twigs *in* or *into* fagots

bound *by* a contract; *upon* a limb; *to* the sides; *behind* the back

break *into* the house; oneself *of* a habit; *through* restraint; the news *to* some one; *with* a person (dissolve partnership, friendship)

care *of, for,* or *about* a person or a thing. He takes no care *of* his money nor *about* his dress, because he has no care *for* the future.

change cars *for* New York; seats *with* some one; *for* the better; *in* conduct; *of* circumstances

choice *between* two; *among* several; *for* president

come *across* a person or thing; *into* fashion; *by* something; *to* the city

complain *against* one; *to* the authorities; *of* a nuisance; *about, concerning, regarding* misconduct

comply *with* the wishes or the commands of another, the conditions or the regulations

conference *between* two persons or groups of persons; *of* one or several *with* others *about, concerning, regarding* something

confide *in* a person's honesty; something *to* a person's care

confident *of* success; *in* the correctness of an opinion

contrast *to* something; one object *with* another

convenient *to* a place; *for* a purpose or use

correspond *with* a person; *to* or *with* a thing

deal well *by* people; *in* some article; *with* a person or thing

die *of* fever; *from* overwork; *by* violence; *for* one's country; *to* the world; *at* sea; *in* agony

disappointed *of* something hoped for; *at* failure; *in* a matter

disgusted *with* a person; *at* or *with* the result

embark *on* a boat *for* a certain place; *in* a new business or career

fail *in* an attempt; *of* one's purpose

fall *into* confusion, a pit, a mistake; *under* suspicion; *from* a window; *upon* an enemy; *among* thieves

familiar *to* or *with*. A thing is familiar *to* us; we are familiar *with* it.

fill *with* water; *to* the top

free *from* pain, error; *of* charge; *with* one's money, one's friends

furnish the hungry *with* food; food *to* or *for* the hungry

glad *of* the fact, your company; *at* the tidings, the sight

glance *at* the sign; *over* the work
grateful *to* a person; *for* favors
hope *for* better things; *of* or *for* him (when *hope* is preceded by the word no). We had no hope *for* his recovery.
impress an idea *on* some one; some one *with* an idea
indebted *to* a person; *for* a kindness
influence *with* a high official; *on, over, with* a person or thing affected; *by, through,* or *by means of* any quality or attribute; *for* or *in behalf of* any person or object
inform a person *about* or *concerning* the facts; *of* a fact; *against* a thief
inquire *into* the matter; *about, concerning, or in regard to* the transaction; *of* some one; *at* a house; *for* a person; *after* one's health
inspection *into* the matter; *over* the men; *of* the goods manufactured
interest *in* a subject, a business; *with* a person; *on* a loan; *at* a certain rate
join *in* the game; one thing *to* or *with* another; end *to* end; friend *with* friend
journey *from* place *to* place; *through* Europe; *across* the continent; *over* the sea; *into* the interior; *among* the natives; *by* rail, land; *for* one's health; *on* foot
labor *under* difficulties; *for* the good of the cause; *in* a noble cause; *at* some particular work
liable *to* error; *for* payment
live *for* a long time; *by* honest labor; *on* a small income; *within* one's means
look *on* a spectacle; *on* a person as a friend; *at* a picture; *for* an expected guest; *after* a patient, some business; *into* a matter; *over* the accounts; *through* the trunk
make *of* wood; *out of* a large box; *from* sugar cane; *into* a dress; *toward* the door; *for* me, beauty; something *by* hand, machinery; something *with* a sharp instrument
meddle *with* our affairs; *in* the trouble
neglect *of* duty, the child by his guardian; *on the part of* the doctor
object *to* his speech; *to* or *against* the statements
operate *on* or *upon* a person; *in* wheat; *for* cataract
overcome *with* sorrow; *by* their entreaties
part *in* the middle; *among* the children; *from* a friend; *with* an heirloom
pass *from* one to another; *for* a villain; *by* the house; *into* a trance
perish *with* cold; *by* the sword; *in* a good cause; *at* sea; *for* his country

persevere *in* his work; *against* opposition

plead *with* the judge; *for* the prisoner; *against* the tyrant; *at* the bar; *before* the court; *in* open court

pleasant *to, with,* or *toward* the child; *about* the matter

poor *in* worldly possessions; *from* extravagance

prevail *on* or *upon* him to go; *over* or *against* the enemy; *with* me. His argument prevailed *with* me.

prey *on* weaker animals; *upon* the mind

pride *in* or *on*. He takes great pride *in* his son. He prides himself *on* his success.

proceed *with* your work; *to* the important business; *against* a criminal; *upon* a new basis; *from* something. Water proceeds *from* the fountain. It proceeds *from* the heart.

profit *by* his example; *of* labor; *on* capital; *in* business

protect one *from* insult; *with* a shield

provide *for* the future; one *with* funds; *against* the evil day

purchase *at* a certain price, a public sale; *of* or *from* one for cash; *with* money

reckon *on* or *upon* his support; that item *in* the cost; *with* the culprit later

recover *from* sickness, misfortune; damages *of* or *from* a person; judgment *against* some one

rejoice *at* his downfall; *in* his own success

relation *between* two things; *of* one thing *to* another

reproach myself *with* unkindness; *to* any people; him *for* his wrongdoing

respect *to* or *for* a person; *for* the laws. With respect *to* the war, he spoke freely. In respect *of* ability, he is superior to me.

responsible *for* our actions; *to* our employer

result *of* the investigation; *in* his downfall; *from* those statements

rich *in* lands; *with* butter; *from* speculation

rise *from* slumber; *to* duty; *at* the call; *with* the lark

run *after* the child; *at* the animal; *into* debt; *over* the items; *through* a fortune

secure *from* harm; *against* attack; *in* his hiding place

security *for* the payment of the debt, the prisoner; *in* the sum of two thousand dollars

see *about* the matter; *into* the affair; *to* that part of the work; *through* his actions

send *to* a friend; *by* rail, boat, messenger, mail; *into* exile; a messenger *from* the president *to* the senate

set *on* or *upon* the floor; *in* a certain position or place; one person *against* another; dogs *upon* a thief; *about* his work

sick *of* politics, life, fashion; *for* the sea, the mountains; *from* overeating; *with* diphtheria
sink *into* sleep, bad habits; *upon* the bed; *before* danger; *beneath* the surface; *below* the horizon
slow *of* hearing; *at* arithmetic; *in* coming to a decision
smile *at* his attempts; *on* or *upon* a person
speak *of* a matter; *on* or *upon* a subject; *to* a person; *with* the manager; *about* a person or thing
stand *on* or *upon* a bench; *by* or *to* a pledge; *by* a friend; *with* the majority; *for* the right; *on* ceremony; *over* the workmen; *against* wrong; *on* one's dignity
stare one *in* the face; *at* the moon
sympathy *with* a person *in* grief; *for* the poor *in* their distress; *between* kindred spirits
talk *to* the man; *with* the teacher; *of* or *about* some person or thing; *over* a subject; *with* one's fingers
tax *with* a crime, an act; *for* revenue
think *through* a problem; *of* him often; *about* the affair
trust my secret *to* you; him *in* the physician's care; me *with* your money; *in* the Lord
view *of* the river; *to* conquest
wait *for* anything or anybody; *at* the gate; *for* orders; *in* a restaurant; *on* the children
warn them *of* their danger; him *against* his enemy

24. Occasionally a preposition is used where it is unnecessary or one is omitted where it is required. Be careful to avoid the use of unnecessary prepositions and do not omit one that is necessary in order to bring out the meaning.

In the following sentences the italicized preposition should not be used:

Where have you been *to?*
Smell *of* this flower.
That girl is like *to* her mother.
Where does Rachel work *at?*
He went *to* home.
What is he going *for?* (This should be *Why is he going?*)
She admitted *of* the fact.
Turn *around* the corner.
We went out *for* to have a walk.
Frank fell off *of* the steps.
Look out *of* the door.

Compare the following correct and incorrect sentences and determine why the preposition is required:

Incorrect	*Correct*
There is no use going there.	There is no use *in* going there.
Mother is not home today.	Mother is not *at* home today.
They live the other side the street.	They live *on* the other side *of* the street.
We left the city the fifth of July.	We left the city *on* the fifth of July.
This fruit is not for you but me.	This fruit is not for you but *for* me.
Why does he act that way?	Why does he act *in* that way?

USING PREPOSITIONS IN SENTENCES

25. Directions.—Read carefully the sentences in Exercise VI and decide what preposition could properly be used in the place of the line in each sentence. Then write the sentences, inserting the proper preposition in each blank space.

EXAMPLE.—

1. The men are not yet familiar with their work.

EXERCISE VI

1. The men are not yet familiar ——— their work.
2. Why do you object ——— the statement he made in his letter?
3. Our first view ——— the city was not a pleasing one.
4. The operators would not agree ——— the demands of the men.
5. She seemed much annoyed ——— the boy and complained ——— his mother ——— his actions.
6. Mother is never free ——— pain and consequently has great sympathy ——— all who are ill.
7. Please wait ——— me while I speak ——— the superintendent ——— the break ——— the machinery.
8. Are you familiar ——— the work assigned you?
9. If you have any influence ——— your son, please try to have him comply ——— my wishes.
10. Please glance ——— this page and tell me whether or not you are familiar ——— these plans.

CONJUNCTIONS

26. Conjunctions are divided into two classes: *coordinate* and *subordinate*. A coordinate conjunction connects words or other elements that have the same grammatical function. A subordinate conjunction introduces a clause and connects this clause with some other part of the sentence. Thus, in *They called him but he would not come,* the conjunction *but* connects the two simple sentences *they called him* and *he would not come* and is a coordinate conjunction. In *He came because he was called,* the word *because* introduces the clause *because he was called* and connects this clause with the verb *came*. *Because* is a subordinate conjunction.

The principal coordinate conjunctions are *and, but, or, nor.* The principal subordinate conjunctions are *if, until, because, unless, since, as, than, although, for, that.* The connecting words for compound sentences listed in Art. **8,** Instruction Paper 1920F, are all coordinating conjunctions, while those given under Connecting Words for Clauses, Art. **5,** Instruction Paper 1920G, are subordinate conjunctions.

27. A few conjunctions, as *neither* and *nor, either* and *or, both* and *and,* usually go in pairs. These pairs of words are called *correlative conjunctions,* or simply *correlatives.* The first word of these pairs, although classed as a conjunction, is hardly a connecting word. It serves merely to introduce the sentence, or a part of the sentence, and to announce, as it were, the second word, which is the real conjunction.

The most important correlatives are:

although . . . yet	not . . . nor
as . . . as	not only . . . but also
as . . . so	so . . . as
both . . . and	so . . . that
either . . . or	such . . . as
if . . then	such . . . that
neither . . . nor	though . . . yet
not . . . but	whether . . . or

The following sentences will serve to give an idea of how correlatives are used in sentences:

Neither his wealth *nor* his reputation availed.
He was *either* a villain *or* an idiot.
Both he *and* she were found guilty.
Whether you oppose me *or* not, I shall continue working for this righteous cause.
It snowed *so* hard *that* we decided to stay at home.
Will you come *as* early *as* you can?
I am not *so* tall *as* you are.

28. When the correlatives *both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, not only . . . but also* or *but, not . . . but* are used, they should connect similar elements; that is, the part of the sentence that follows the first term of the pair should be similar in construction to the part that follows the second term. In the sentence *I felt both ashamed and terrified,* the correlatives *both . . . and* are used correctly for they are both followed by adjectives and connect these adjectives, whereas if the sentence were expressed *I both felt ashamed and terrified,* it would be wrong, for in this form *both* is followed by the verb *felt* while *and* is followed by the adjective *terrified.*

The following sentences illustrate correct uses of the most important correlatives:

Both . . . and
The man was tired out *both* IN MIND *and* IN BODY. (Connect two phrases)
Both JOHN *and* MARY helped them. (Connect two nouns)
Either . . . or
Either the MAN *or* his SON will show us the way. (Connect two nouns)
We tried *either* TO REACH THE NEAREST TOWN *or* TO FIND SOME PLACE of safety. (Connect two phrases)
Neither . . . nor
They found that the captain was *neither* BRAVE *nor* PATRIOTIC. (Connect two adjectives)
Neither OFFICIALLY *nor* UNOFFICIALLY was he asked to help. (Connect two adverbs)
Not only . . . but also
He is *not only* a MUSICIAN *but also* an ARTIST. (Connect two nouns)
That man *not only* LEFT much money *but also* LEFT real estate. (Connect two verbs)

Not . . . but

A wise physician attempts *not* TO CURE DISEASES *but* TO PREVENT THEM. (Connect two phrases)

Not PROMISES *but* ACTION is what I want. (Connect two nouns)

29. A few conjunctions are sometimes used incorrectly or cause trouble. Observe closely the following discussions as they will help you to avoid errors in the use of conjunctions:

Nor.—The conjunction *nor* is the proper correlative for the words *neither, not, never,* and similar negatives. Such sentences as the following are therefore correct:

Neither his friends *nor* his foes had foreseen the present state of affairs.

The child was *not* tired *nor* sleepy.

The bird *never* sang *nor* chirped again.

Often, even in the works of standard authors, we find such constructions as the following:

I could *not* discover any sign of houses *or* inhabitants.

We found he could *not* read *or* write.

He could boast of *neither* strength *or* courage.

We *never* saw the gift *or* the giver.

It was *not* by flattery *or* by favors that he won so many friends.

In order that these sentences may be stated correctly, the second correlative in each should be *nor,* not *or.*

There is one case, however, in which *or* and not *nor* should be used as a correlative of the negatives *no* and *not;* namely, when two words or expressions are used together to name the same person or thing. The following sentences serve to illustrate when *or* instead of *nor* may be employed:

We had *no* desire, *or* inclination, to go.

The man was *not* fitted to be a chief, *or* leader.

You have *no* permission, *or* authority, to give forth such a statement.

No house, *or* habitation, was seen by the travelers for several days.

They were *not* influenced by my will, *or* disposition, in the matter.

Whether . . . Or.—The word *no* is very often heard after the correlatives *whether . . . or,* but this use has not the sanction of authorities on grammar and should therefore be avoided. Every person is familiar with such sentences as the following:

I have not been informed *whether* he will go *or* NO.
You must concede this point *whether* you will *or* NO.
Whether his subjects are willing *or* NO, makes no difference to the ruler.

The word *no* is incorrectly used in these sentences and should be replaced by *not*. The correlatives *whether* . . . *or* are followed by the proper term in the following sentences:

Whether he comes *or* NOT, we shall go.
They must go *whether* they wish to go *or* NOT.
Whether or NOT the book is theirs, I do not know.
Whether the story is interesting *or* NOT, it will be published.
I am unable to say *whether* he will testify *or* NOT.
We have decided that we shall go *whether* it rains *or* NOT.

***Whether* and *If*.**—The use of the conjunction *if* in the sense of *whether* should be avoided. The following sentences illustrate this construction, the word that should be used being in each case enclosed in marks of parenthesis:

I don't know *if* (*whether*) he will come or not.
It is uncertain *if* (*whether*) we shall have rain today.
I am not prepared to say *if* (*whether*) I shall be able to attend the meeting.
The small boy did not know *if* (*whether*) he had started to school on time or not.
It is impossible to find out *if* (*whether*) the train has been wrecked.
The speaker could not tell *if* (*whether*) the audience were interested or not.

***Without* for *Unless*.**—*Without* is a preposition and should not be used as a conjunction in place of the conjunction *unless*. At one time many good writers substituted *without* for the conjunction *unless*, but such a use is now considered incorrect and should be avoided.

In the following sentences, *without* is used incorrectly as a conjunction; the word that should be substituted for *without* is placed in marks of parenthesis:

I will not go *without* (*unless*) you give your consent.
Without (*Unless*) his work is completed at the proper time, he shall be required to remain.
Without (*Unless*) you have good reasons for your action, it is unusual.

I found that he would not take the trip *without* (*unless*) I went with him.

Without (*Unless*) they can prove his innocence, the prisoner will be convicted of the awful crime.

And.—When the conjunction *and* is correctly used, it connects ideas of equal grammatical rank. This conjunction is sometimes incorrectly used to join a clause to an element that has not the same value as the clause. Such sentences as the following are sometimes heard:

He is a speaker of renown *and* whose ideas are attracting considerable attention.

Behind us were the twinkling lights of the city *and* which seemed to fade away as we passed down the river.

He sent to the firm a carefully written application *and* which secured the position for him.

Sometimes at school she plays with children *and* who seem to amuse her.

The school was already overtaxed with students *and* who seemed eager for an education.

According to the preceding remarks, these sentences are wrong. They may be corrected in two ways: the conjunction *and* may be omitted or the elements joined by *and* may be given so that they are of equal rank. Thus, the sentences may be changed to read as follows:

He is a speaker of renown and one whose ideas are attracting considerable attention; *or* He is a speaker of renown, whose ideas are attracting considerable attention.

Behind us were the twinkling lights of the city, which seemed to fade away as we passed down the river.

He sent to the firm a carefully written application, which secured the position for him.

Sometimes at school she plays with children and they seem to amuse her.

The school was already overtaxed with students, who seemed eager for an education.

As . . . As* and *So . . . As.—The two pairs of correlatives, *as . . . as* and *so . . . as,* are often confused. It should be remembered that *as . . . as* is used in sentences that express an affirmative meaning, whereas *so . . . as* is used when the meaning is negative. The mistake that generally

occurs in the use of these words consists in substituting *as* for *so*. The following sentences contain these correlatives used incorrectly and show the proper expressions enclosed in marks of parenthesis:

He is not *as* old *as* (*so* old *as*) he looks.
We knew it was not *as* late *as* (*so* late *as*) that.
The dinner was not *as* good *as* (*so* good *as*) the breakfast.
We heard that he did not pay *as* much *as* (*so* much *as*) we paid.
I am not *as* tall *as* (*so* tall *as*) my brother is.

As . . . as and *so . . . as* are used correctly in the following sentences:

This apple is *as* large *as* any in the barrel.
I arrived at the station *as* soon *as* John did.
My business is not *so* important *as* yours.
He received *as* many votes *as* his opponent.
I cannot stay *so* long *as* my brother.

As . . . Than.—*As* is correctly used after an adjective in the positive degree to denote some kind of equality; *than* is properly employed after an adjective in the comparative degree to denote some kind of inequality. In many sentences, however, we find the conjunction *than* used in connection with both positive and comparative forms, making an incorrect construction that should be avoided.

Her condition is *as* good or better *than* it has been since the accident.
This book is *as* large or larger *than* the one on the table.
The tendency to accept his statements is *as* great if not greater *than* it was formerly.

In the first of these sentences, the conjunction *than* is expressed after the comparative *better*, but no conjunction is given after the positive adjective *good*. Therefore, the conjunction *than* must be thought of as applying to both of these adjectives. However, the use of this conjunction with the positive *good* and the comparative *better* causes an incorrect construction for the sentence expressed in full would be,

Her condition is as good (than it has been since the accident) or better than it has been since the accident.

From this awkward form, it can readily be seen that the word *than* must not be understood after the adjective *good*

in the sentence. The sentence may be given correctly by changing it to read,

Her condition is as good as it has been since the accident, if not better.

The correct forms of the other two sentences are,

This book is as large as the one on the table, if not larger.

The tendency to accept his statements is as great as it was formerly, if not greater.

Other sentences illustrating this construction are as follows:

Incorrect	*Correct*
Her vacation is as short or perhaps shorter than it was in previous years.	Her vacation is as short as it was in previous years, or perhaps shorter.
The roses in this bed seem as fragrant if not more fragrant than those in the next bed.	The roses in this bed seem as fragrant as those in the next bed, if not more fragrant.
In the course of a week, this tree will have as many blossoms if it has not more than any of the other trees in the yard.	In the course of a week, this tree will have as many blossoms as any of the other trees in the yard, if it has not more blossoms.
The walk made us as tired or even more tired than it did on previous occasions.	The walk made us as tired as it did on previous occasions or even more tired.
His desire to make a success of his undertakings is as keen or keener now than it was in his youth.	His desire to make a success of his undertakings is as keen now as it was in his youth, if not keener.

USING CONJUNCTIONS IN SENTENCES

30. Directions.—Use correctly in sentences each conjunction listed in Exercise VII. Where pairs of conjunctions are listed, use each pair as correlatives.

EXERCISE VII

1. neither . . . nor
2. both . . . and
3. not only . . . but also
4. so . . . as
5. as . . . as
6. than
7. for
8. either . . . or
9. and
10. unless

THE PHRASE AND THE CLAUSE

31. The phrase and the clause play so important a part in sentence constructions that they require careful consideration. These two elements are similar in that they perform the same work. They are unlike in structure, however, and you need to know exactly wherein they differ so that you may distinguish readily between them.

A **phrase** is a group of words used as a single part of speech but containing no predicating verb.

A **clause** is a group of words used as a single part of speech and always contains a subject and a predicate.

Note the following illustrations of phrases and of clauses:

PHRASES

The boys ran *down the street,* turned the corner, and disappeared *among the trees.*

He came *for the letters.*

Fearing the storm, we hurried home.

She tried *to do her work* neatly.

The machinists *in the shops* were able *to earn good wages.*

The railroad men were not satisfied *with the award of the commission.*

We went home *after the storm.*

The children like *to pick strawberries.*

Picking berries is hard work.

CLAUSES

The men stopped work *as soon as the whistle sounded.*

The girls *that work in the silk mill* can buy silk very cheaply.

When you go home, call for me.

Keep the Home Fires Burning is a popular song.

We did not think *that they would win.*

The hall *in which the play was given* is a large one.

There are several reasons *why we cannot go.*

"Why did the men stop work so early?" he asked.

You must go *where he tells you to go.*

32. Kinds of Phrases.—When considered with respect to form, phrases are of two kinds—*prepositional* and *verbal.*

33. A **prepositional phrase** is a phrase introduced by a preposition and consists of the preposition and the noun or pronoun used as its object together with any modifiers that occur between the preposition and its object. The following are examples of prepositional phrases:

down the shady street, into the corner house, with his cane, of an interesting book, in the cool water

34. A **verbal phrase** is always introduced by a verbal or an infinitive and consists of the introductory word and its object together with the words that occur between this introductory word and the object. The following are verbal phrases:

to get some water, to see the parade, washing the dinner dishes, catching fish, to sail my boat, to earn his living, helping her mother, crossing the busy street, to cross the busy street

35. Phrases and Clauses Classified With Respect to the Work They Do.—Both phrases and clauses do the work of single words—nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. If they have any use that a noun may have, they are classified as *noun phrases* or *noun clauses;* if they modify a noun or a pronoun, they are regarded as *adjective* modifiers; if they restrict the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, they are used *adverbially*. Note the following:

PHRASES

To be a musician was her desire. (Noun phrase, subject of the verb *was*)

She expected *to do her work* accurately. (Noun phrase, object of the verb *expected*)

The child *in the automobile* is her son. (Adjective phrase modifying the noun *child*)

They went into the house *on the hill.* (Adjective phrase modifying the noun *house*)

Fearing a riot, the mayor called out the police. (Adjective phrase modifying the noun *mayor*)

A beautiful bird was perched *on the highest limb.* (Adverbial phrase modifying the verb *was perched*)

Her dress was too short *in front.* (Adverbial phrase modifying the adjective *short*)

The children are playing *in the garage.* (Adverbial phrase modifying the verb *are playing*)

CLAUSES

That she would go West was expected. (Noun clause, subject of the verb *was expected*)

I do not know *why he went so soon.* (Noun clause, object of the verb *do know*)

The cherries *that we picked* were very ripe. (Adjective clause modifying the noun *cherries*)

Youth is the time *when the seeds of character are sown.* (Adjective clause modifying the noun *time*)

When the girls heard the bell, they ran into the house. (Adverbial clause modifying the verb *ran*)

The water is very still *where it is deep.* (Adverbial clause modifying the adjective *still*)

36. Directions.—Make a list of the phrases and of the clauses occurring in the sentences of Exercise VIII and classify each one as noun, adjective, or adverbial.

EXAMPLE.—

1. When the farmer went to market—adverbial clause
   to market—adverbial phrase
   with many kinds—adverbial phrase
   of vegetables—adjective phrase

EXERCISE VIII

1. Yesterday when the farmer went to market, he had his automobile filled with many kinds of vegetables.
2. After the children fed the chickens, they went to search for eggs in the barn.
3. They filled the hold of the vessel with large quantities of oil.
4. In many instances, laws have been enacted to prevent the erection of buildings that would burn readily.
5. Investigation has shown that many fires are caused through the carelessness of smokers.
6. Without great labor we succeeded in doing the work that had been assigned to us.
7. Flocks of geese were flying toward the South.
8. The men who work in that factory are supplied with many safety appliances.
9. The crew on the deck of the ship were busy with their work for the evening.
10. Without doubt, blasting was in some measure responsible for the slides that at one time were common in the Panama Canal.

37. Misplaced Modifiers.—A sentence that is to give its reader or hearer a correct impression must have its ele-

ments so arranged that the relation of one part to another is perfectly clear. Sometimes the meaning of a sentence is not apparent or is ambiguous because a modifier does not stand close to the word it modifies—adverbs, phrases, or clauses are placed so far away from the terms they qualify that it is not clear to what they refer. If you would have your sentences clear, place every modifier, whether it be a word, a phrase, or a clause, close to the word or words it modifies.

In the following sentences, note the lack of clearness of the sentences in which the modifiers are misplaced and the effect produced by writing these modifiers in their proper positions:

Misplaced Modifiers	*Correctly Placed*
I intend to tell what I think of him *publicly.*	I intend to tell *publicly* what I think of him.
Lost: A valuable silk umbrella belonging to a woman *with a carved ivory handle.*	Lost: A lady's valuable silk umbrella *with a carved ivory handle.*
That dog *almost* seems human.	That dog seems *almost* human.
They went strolling down the street *with a smile.*	*With a smile,* they went strolling down the street.
An unknown woman was found lying by the railroad track *with a broken arm and leg.*	An unknown woman *with a broken arm and leg* was found lying by the railroad track.
It was still raining when Jack went out to feed the cows *with an umbrella.*	It was still raining when Jack took an umbrella and went out to feed the cows.
Wanted: A housekeeper for a small family *of considerable experience.*	Wanted: A housekeeper *of considerable experience,* for a small family.
Here and there we saw men driving cows *on horseback.*	Here and there, we saw men *on horseback,* driving cows.
He asked his father to buy an automobile *in his letter.*	*In his letter,* he asked his father to buy an automobile.
Remember to *thoroughly* repair the machine.	Remember to repair the machine *thoroughly.*
A man should not be allowed to vote *who cannot read and write.*	A man *who cannot read and write,* should not be allowed to vote.
A garden of flowers was near the house *that filled the air with fragrance.*	Near the house, was a garden of flowers *that filled the air with fragrance.*
The meaning was perfectly clear *that he intended to convey.*	The meaning *that he intended to convey* was perfectly clear.

Misplaced Modifiers	*Correctly Placed*
He told the same story as he is now telling *last week.*	*Last week,* he told the same story as he is now telling.
The boxes were full of broken glass *with which we made the fire.*	The boxes *with which we made the fire,* were full of broken glass.
Take one of the powders on retiring *in hot water.*	*On retiring,* take one of the powders *in hot water.*

You will note from these illustrations that sometimes it is necessary to change the form of the expression.

CORRECTING MISPLACED ELEMENTS

38. Directions.—The sentences in Exercise IX contain misplaced elements. Determine what is wrong in each sentence, and then write the sentence correctly.

EXERCISE IX

1. For sale: A three-story frame dwelling by a family about to leave town with all modern improvements.
2. Each man had to slide down a rope to the ground which was attached to the roof.
3. The meeting was held in the Court House of the city officials.
4. We only waited for her for ten minutes.
5. The annual stockholders' meeting was held last evening.
6. He tried to gently remind her of what she had said.
7. She was neither willing to stay at home nor to go with her father.
8. The people purchased liberally not only of Liberty Bonds but also gave freely to the Red Cross and other organizations.
9. To be sold: A delivery truck, the property of a gentleman that has been run about 500 miles.
10. A disastrous fire destroyed many houses which broke out this morning.

REVIEW EXERCISE

(1) Copy the following story and: (*a*) supply all needed capital letters and punctuation marks; (*b*) indicate the part of speech to which each word belongs.

(2) Classify each sentence in the story as simple, complex, or compound.

(3) Mention ten phrases found in this story and classify each one as adjective or adverbial.

(4) Quote five clauses given in the story and classify each one as a noun clause, an adjective clause, or an adverbial clause.

PERSEVERANCE WINS

(Concluded)

thrice during the day did we despair but the captains dauntless courage perseverance and powerful will mastered every man on board and we went to the work again

i will land you safe at the dock in liverpool said he if you will be men he did land us safe but the vessel sank soon after she was moored the captain stood on the deck of the sinking ship and received the thanks of the passengers as they hurried down the gang plank

i was the last one to leave as i passed he grasped my hand and inquired judge preston do you not recognize me

i answered i do not and i am not aware that i had ever seen you before i stepped on board of your ship

do you remember the boy who had so much difficulty in getting a geography about thirty years ago in cincinnati he owes a debt of gratitude to you for your encouragement and kindness to him

i remember him very well sir his name was william haverley

the captain said i am he and may god bless you

i replied may god bless you too captain haverley the perseverance that thirty years ago secured you that geography has today saved our lives

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH
(PART 14)

LETTER WRITING

GENERAL INFORMATION CONCERNING LETTERS

1. Importance of Letter Writing.—Inasmuch as most persons of today have some occasion to write letters, it is essential that every one learn to express himself correctly and effectively in writing, and that he know some of the main points to be observed in letter writing. This lesson presents the most important of these points.

2. Kinds of Letters.—There are two well-defined classes into which all correspondence may be divided; namely, *business* and *social*.

Business letters are those relating to business affairs. Under this heading are classified all letters written by business men in connection with their occupation or profession, as well as letters written by any person with reference to business affairs, such as letters ordering goods, letters requesting payment, etc.

Social letters are those written to relatives, friends, or acquaintances, and deal with social rather than business relations. Such letters are frequently termed *friendly letters*.

MATERIALS

3. Paper.—The paper and all other materials used in writing should be of good quality. A letter written on cheap-looking paper is sure to impress the recipient unfavorably.

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

On the other hand, a letter neatly written on good stationery makes a favorable impression even before it is read.

Nearly all business letters are written on letter paper, which is in flat sheets, generally from 8 inches by 10 inches to 9 inches by 11 inches in size. For short business letters, smaller sizes (5 inches by 8 inches to $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches by $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches) may be used. Bond paper is preferred, as it is durable and may be obtained in any desired thickness. Ruled paper is rarely used. A set of heavy lines placed under the sheet will show through and furnish a guide for any one who is unable to write straight or to space the lines properly.

In social correspondence, note paper is generally used; that is, paper with four pages to the sheet. This comes in a great variety of styles and sizes, varying from 4 inches to 6 inches in width, and from 6 inches to 9 inches in length. The larger sizes are used mostly by men.

White paper is always in good taste for business stationery, though many concerns secure distinctiveness by the use of colors. Light tints of gray, blue, green, or brown are most effective. Care should be taken to avoid colors that prevent the writing from being easily read. Shun all showy paper.

In stationery for social correspondence, many tints are available and colored paper is more generally used than in business letters.

4. Envelopes.—The envelope should correspond in size, quality, and color with the paper. It should be slightly longer than the letter properly folded. It is annoying to any person to receive a letter partially stuck inside the envelope because the envelope is too small to allow the letter to be easily removed.

Envelopes should be opaque, so that they will not reveal their contents, and durable enough to stand long journeys and rough handling.

5. Ink.—The ink should flow freely and should permit the formation of distinct letters. If the ink is too thick, the writing is liable to blot and present an indistinct appearance. Black ink, or blue ink that turns black after it is exposed to the air, is considered best for all correspondence.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF A LETTER

6. The mechanical make-up of a letter is fully discussed in *Good English,* Part 1, and the importance of creating a favorable first impression by having the letter present a handsome appearance is there emphasized. Review that lesson at once, and then make constant application of the principles there given. Do not neglect appearances, but have your letters correct in all mechanical details as well as in the messages they carry.

REVIEW OF MECHANICAL DETAILS

7. Directions.—1. Exercise I will test your understanding of the proper arrangement, capitalization, and punctuation of the various parts of letters. Note carefully what is given in this Exercise. Then arrange properly the parts of the two letters given in Exercise I, supplying all necessary capitals and marks of punctuation.

2. Draw two outlines of an envelope and write within them the proper addresses of the letters given in Exercise I.

EXERCISE I

1. 526 e 5th st buffalo n y july 30 1920 mr j w jackson 613 columbus boulevard columbus ohio my dear sir a copy of your circular letter of July 25 has just reached me and i am pleased to find that you have . . . . you may ship these goods by american express yours truly m s stanton

2. room 398 national bank building scranton pa 6-29-1920 mrs helen m clark pittston pa dear mrs clark your letter concerning . . . . if we can be of further assistance please tell us yours very truly the cromwell publishing company john h adams president

WRITING THE LETTER

8. The object of every letter is to carry some message This may be a request for information, an order for goods, a demand for payment, an account of some event, etc. The letter may fail of its purpose if it does not contain the fundamental qualities that the reader has a right to demand in every

letter. An illegible, untidy, badly-spelled letter creates at once a disagreeable impression. A letter that is not divided into well-arranged paragraphs and that lacks unity, not only may confuse and annoy the recipient but may give him a poor opinion of the writer's intelligence and education.

Would you have your letters convey your message at first reading and have this message receive favorable consideration? Then exercise care in the writing of each letter, making certain it is correct, clear, concise, and complete.

9. Correctness.—Under correctness may be included spelling, sentence construction, punctuation, and mechanical details. Aim to be correct in all these points.

10. Clearness.—Clearness includes legibility, a wise choice of words, correct punctuation, and unity. It demands clear thinking, a logical arrangement of the facts, and a statement of each separate fact in such form that it will stand out by itself and will catch the reader's attention at once. This arrangement and statement of facts will be discussed later under the heads of The Paragraph and Unity.

11. Conciseness and Completeness.—Most business men do not have time to read long, detailed letters, and they appreciate letters that avoid unnecessary details. Aim to make your letters as short as is consistent with clearness and completeness. Avoid unnecessary words and undue repetition. Do not, however, omit any words that are essential to the expression of your thoughts. See that your letter is complete—that you have not omitted any necessary statements and that you have mentioned all matters that should receive attention.

Many in their attempt to secure conciseness give their letters a curt, snappy tone, or make their sentences incomplete or ungrammatical. Curtness creates a disagreeable impression, and incomplete sentences cause ambiguity. Do not mistake the quality of conciseness. Express your ideas briefly but fully, and have each sentence grammatically complete.

THE PARAGRAPH

12. Examine any well-constructed letter or article, and you will see that the sentences in it are grouped, each group being set off by itself and containing only sentences that deal with one topic or idea. Each separate division of sentences is known as a paragraph. The purpose of the paragraph is to aid the reader in comprehending the thought, to rest the eye, and to show the changes in thought or topics.

13. Length of Paragraphs.—There is no fixed rule for determining the length of a paragraph, for its length must depend upon the purpose of the letter and the person to whom the letter is addressed. Sometimes short paragraphs make a letter easy to read; and this should be kept in mind in writing to persons of little education and to busy men who read hastily the letters they receive.

Paragraphing should not be too frequent, however. Too many extremely short paragraphs tend to give the letter a curt tone, and the use of paragraphs of about the same length throughout the letter tends to make it uninteresting. The length of the paragraphs should be varied. Important ideas may be emphasized by short paragraphs, while longer paragraphs may be employed when presenting points in considerable detail. If you paragraph so as to secure clearness, the length of the paragraph will usually take care of itself.

14. Indentation of Paragraphs.—The first line of each paragraph should be indented. This is a great aid to the eye and enables the reader to see at a glance where each paragraph begins.

Recently there has come into use, in typewritten matter, a system of paragraphing, known as the Block System, wherein each paragraph begins on the marginal line, the paragraph being shown by an extra space between the lines. This form may be used for typewritten work but it is not advisable to use it for hand-written letters or other matter. The style best suited to letters that are not typewritten is that used in Mr. Gasket's letter to Mr. Thomas in Art. **18.**

UNITY

15. The principle of unity requires that a paragraph should deal with but one main idea or topic and that it should contain nothing that does not have a direct bearing on that topic.

Unity means more than this, however. It also means that separate paragraphs should not be made of matter that belongs together. All the ideas bearing directly on one subject must be brought together in the same paragraph.

16. How to Secure Unity.—A good way to secure unity in paragraphs is to decide in advance what each paragraph is to discuss. Jot down on paper the topics that are to be included in a letter. Then build up each topic into a separate paragraph, by adding to the topic sentence the details that are needed to convey the idea of the paragraph to the mind of the reader.

Suppose you are going to write a letter of application. The introductory paragraph and the concluding paragraph being disregarded, the topic sentences of the various paragraphs that make up the body of the letter might be as follows:

(1) I have had considerable experience.

(2) Previous employers speak well of my work.

(3) I have been preparing myself for a more important position.

Filling in the details, you might have the following paragraphs:

I have had considerable experience. As soon as I was graduated from the Scranton High School in 1912, I secured a position in the office of the Scranton Coal Company, where I did general clerical work that gave me an insight into modern business methods. I remained there four years, being promoted five times, with a salary increase each time. My last position with this company was that of office manager. In September, I was offered a better position by the Hudson Coal Company, where I have had charge of an office force of fifty. My duties in my present position include the supervision of all correspondence, of all accounting, and of all clerical and statistical work.

Previous employers speak well of my work. Mr. A. J. Peterson, of the Scranton Coal Company, told me that he was entirely satisfied with

my services, and was sorry that he could not induce me to stay with him. He will be very glad to write you in detail about my qualifications. For information as to what I have done with the Hudson Coal Company, let me refer you to Mr. G. N. Mott, General Manager, Hudson Coal Company, People's Bank Building, Scranton.

I have been preparing myself for a more important position. During the past four years, in my spare time, I have devoted myself assiduously to specialized training that will fit me for an executive position of responsibility. I finished the complete business course in the Scranton Business College, and then took the Wharton School Course, with the scope of which I think you are familiar, so that I need not describe it in detail. Besides this, I am a regular reader of the best periodicals and books that treat of the latest developments in modern business practice.

VARIETY IN SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION

17. In letter writing, as in all other forms of written composition, the choice of sentences should be influenced to some extent by the principle of variety. It is just as necessary to be able to use judiciously the various kinds of sentences as it is to possess a comprehensive vocabulary. While, as a rule, short sentences are best, a page should not be filled with sentences of nearly the same length, or of similar form. Such a page makes monotonous reading. For the sake of variety, a sentence rather longer than usual should occasionally be introduced. It should be remembered, too, that a short sentence among several longer ones arrests attention by its very brevity, directness, and abruptness. For this reason a short sentence is often used at the beginning of a paragraph, to state the subject of the paragraph; or at the end, to sum up or to enforce a thought already presented.

Variety in sentences applies not only to their length, but also to their form. The sentences used in a letter may be long or short; declarative, imperative, or interrogative; simple, complex, or compound. Not only should there be variety in the kind of sentences used, but there should be variety in their arrangement. Every letter writer has almost limitless opportunities for avoiding a monotonous, unimpressive style, and for securing a pleasing, effective one.

A LETTER ILLUSTRATING PARAGRAPHING, UNITY, AND VARIETY OF SENTENCES

18. Thoughtful reading of Mr. Gasket's letter to Mr. Thomas will show that it consists of eleven paragraphs, each paragraph treating of only one topic and being indented so as to prepare the reader, through the eye, for each change of thought or topic. These paragraphs are also varied in length and contain sentences of different kinds, thus making the letter more pleasing and effective.

The paragraphs in Mr. Gasket's letter are grouped around the following topics:

1. Reason for leaving Rogers Center.
2. The advantageous situation of Rosemont.
3. Its cleanliness and attractive residences.
4. Inducements presented for new industries.
5. Present industries.
6. Growth in population.
7. New buildings being erected.
8. Good opening for hardware store.
9. Opportunity for securing a good store building.
10. Loan requested and security offered.
11. Conclusion.

Rosemont, Pa.,
July 16, 1920.

Mr. E. S. Thomas, Cashier,
Second National Bank,
Rogers Center, Pa.

Dear Mr. Thomas:

We moved to Rosemont last September and are comfortably settled in a cheerful home on Fairview Ave. The ride here on the cars was delightful and my wife enjoyed it very much. You will recall that she has been an invalid for several years. She is now gaining strength every month. I believe my highest expectations for her improved health through the change in air and scenery are to be realized.

Rosemont is symmetrically laid out in the upper end of the beautiful Iola Valley. At the base of a range of low, irregular hills runs the Iola River, whose banks are well wooded as far as the eye can see. Situated on a gentle slope, Rosemont has a healthy natural drain-

age; and it also has a good sewerage system with which each owner of improved property is required by law to connect. The streets run in line with the cardinal points of the compass—the numbered streets north and south and the avenues east and west. They vary in width from fifty to one hundred feet. Several of the streets are paved with vitrified brick, and four of the avenues are covered with asphalt for a distance of two miles each.

The residences rank above those of the average town for their neat and attractive appearance. They are built to a line, well back from the street, and have pretty front lawns and terraces. Many of these dwellings are substantial, indicating that their owners have considerable means. The citizens are proud of the neat and cleanly appearance of the town and show much zeal in preserving it.

The three railroads that pass through Rosemont give it good transportation facilities to all points. All passenger trains run into a handsome union station which was built two years ago. An active Board of Trade is offering special inducements for industries to locate here. The railroads will promptly provide direct switching connections, and the Citizens' Land Improvement Company will furnish convenient sites without any immediate outlay of money.

Rosemont has, at present, two silk mills, employing about three hundred hands; a worsted-yarn mill; two iron works, each having a foundry and machine shop and employing about fifty men; the Rosemont Manufacturing Company, making a varied line of machinery and structural iron work and employing seventy-two mechanics; two flour mills; the traction company's power house; a municipal electric light plant, and a few smaller industries. All these plants so far as I have heard, are busy and prospering.

At the last census Rosemont had a population of four thousand two hundred sixty-five. A careful canvass three years ago, I am told, showed an increase of about three thousand, and the citizens fully expect the next census report to show that the rapid growth in the last two years has brought our numbers up to at least ten thousand.

This summer about twenty-eight residences are being erected, three of which are quite expensive. Two new store and office buildings and a handsome bank building are going up. The Syndicate Department Company is adding two stories to its building. A new stone church is well under way, as is also an important wing to the yarn mill. The Rosemont Manufacturing Company expects to erect an additional building in the fall. I am told that the prospects are very encouraging for a greater building boom next year.

I have noticed that Rosemont has no well-stocked and up-to-date hardware and supply store. The town has two hardware stores, but their stock is very limited in quantity and variety. Some of the other stores still carry a little hardware as a side line, but are gradually closing it out. You know that I was manager of Ross & Co.'s general

hardware store for seven years. I feel confident that there is a splendid opening for a somewhat similar store here.

On the first of next October I can rent a good two-story building, centrally located on the corner of Main avenue and Eighth street, for $125 a month. I can have the privilege of buying it within three years for $20,000. It was built four years ago and is very substantial. The architect who superintended its erection assures me that it will easily sustain two more stories. The lot will permit of additions to the side and rear.

From property that I sold before leaving Rogers Center I have six thousand dollars ($6,000). I would like to arrange with your bank to obtain a loan of four thousand dollars ($4,000), for which I will give, as collateral security, a first mortgage for three thousand dollars ($3,000) on my improved property on Filbert street in Rogers Center, and two fully paid-up insurance policies of one thousand dollars ($1,000) each.

Kindly bring this matter before your Board of Directors and let me have their reply at your earliest opportunity, as my option on this store lasts only twenty days.

Yours very sincerely,

A. J. Gasket.

WRITING A BUSINESS MAN'S LETTER TO HIS ATTORNEY

19. Directions.—For Exercise II write the following letter from a business man to his attorney. As you do this, supply capital letters and marks of punctuation and arrange the body and conclusion of the letter in eight paragraphs.

Remember that all sentences relating to the same general thought should be placed in one paragraph. When the thought changes, a new paragraph should be made.

EXERCISE II

brooklyn n y may 20 1920 c h stearns esq 609 fidelity building brooklyn new york dear sir i am planning a trip to europe for which i shall need $5000 my family goes with me that i may combine pleasure with business several matters to which i herewith call your attention should be adjusted before we leave which we expect to do on june 28 on october 16 1919 we shipped to tootle tatum and company household outfitters carthage mo on 6 months time 22 rolls ingrains and 17 rolls tapestries which amounted to $1292.73 on nov 2 we shipped to the homemakers supply company denver colo 25 rolls ingrains 12 rolls tapestries 200 rugs and 40 art squares which amounted to $13896.48 they were to have five months time two shipments

that were sent to wilmot brothers company des moines iowa one on oct 17 the other on nov 22 both on 5 months time amount to $1371.59 we have written to each of these parties and have received no replies i think it would be well for you to write them requests for settlement if you prefer itemized statements at this time i will have our clerk send them to you at once mr j t sonnet offers me $9700 for my house and lot on elm ave that is now occupied by mr broadtop i am disposed to accept this offer it provides for $4000 in cash a ninety-day bankable note for $700 which he says a d taylor will endorse and a first mortgage for five years for the remaining $5000 the mortgage is to be placed on this property and the deed is to be transferred to him when the note is paid mr sonnet will call on you in a few days as i have referred him to you for a final adjustment of all details before i leave i wish to add a codicil to my will that you have in keeping it should provide that in case of my death my business shall be conducted for three years thereafter under the present firm name by my son robert a ames and my nephew john c ames conjointly for which each shall receive a salary of $200 per month at the end of the three years the business including ground buildings and equipment shall be disposed of or appraised and the net proceeds divided into four equal parts two of which shall go to my wife and one each to my son and my nephew named above i have heard that the vacant lot on the corner of eighth and chestnut streets may be for sale i consider this a safe investment at about $12000 i wish you would ascertain what there is in this rumor sound j h trethaway who owns it and report to me soon as the market is pretty well up now i think it may be wise to dispose of my 25 shares of erie (par 100) which you will find among my papers that are in your care the approaching western harvests and the presidential conventions and campaign may cause a drop in prices and a stringency in money please dispose of this stock promptly deposit proceeds to my account at the second national and send me a statement an adjustment of our claims on account of the recent fire in our warehouse has not yet been made the appraisers seem slow and disposed to minimize our losses if you deem it advisable i wish you would see them i enclose a copy of our itemized list of claims keep me informed concerning your progress with these business matters yours very truly j j ames.

AN ATTORNEY'S LETTER TO A CLIENT

20. Directions.—Exercise III contains the attorney's reply to the letter in Exercise II. Write this letter, supplying all necessary capital letters and marks of punctuation. Arrange the body and conclusion in ten paragraphs.

EXERCISE III

brooklyn n y june 8 1920 mr j j ames president island tapestry company brooklyn n y my dear sir i desire to make a report concerning the business matters you mentioned in your letter of may 20 i wrote immediately to the three firms to whose overdue accounts you called my attention urging prompt response tootle tatum and company answered by return mail and said they would send a check within two weeks i enclose a 60-day note including discount and a letter which i received yesterday from wilmot brothers company as i have not heard from the home-makers supply company please send me an itemized statement of their account and i will write them more urgently mr sonnet called at my office yesterday and we discussed fully the terms of sale the papers are now prepared according to the conditions that you suggested you may inspect them here at any time or if you prefer i will send them to your office let me know when it will be convenient for you and mrs ames to come to my office to sign these papers i shall have mr sonnet meet you here the codicil to your will is prepared according to your suggestions it awaits the signatures of yourself and witnesses when will you call in a conversation with mr trethaway i broached the sale of his corner lot for which you offer $12000 he is willing to sell but considers this corner a valuable business site and well worth $15000 i told him i could find a cash purchaser at $11000 and asked him to consider this and let me know his decision i have not heard from him since shall i open the subject with him again do you wish to increase your offer i disposed of your 25 shares of erie at the highest market price immediately on receipt of your letter it is unfortunate that you did not let me know of your desire in this matter a few days sooner this stock dropped four points during the previous week it has fallen two and one-half points since i sold yours i placed the proceeds to your credit in the bank as you have been informed and am sending you a statement of the sale soon after i received your letter and itemized list of losses i conferred with the fire adjusters i trust that their settlement for your losses is fairly satisfactory your $5000 in national cash register preferred stock and $9000 in wabash 5 per cent bonds will mature on august 1 if you wish to learn of safe railroad or municipal bonds in which to reinvest this money let me know at your earliest opportunity and i shall be pleased to get the information for you try to be at your office next wednesday at 2 p m i wish to examine with you the insurance policies on your plant they must be renewed before june 18th i hope that this report of progress may be acceptable and i await your further commands yours truly c h stearns

BUSINESS LETTERS

21. Introductory.—The letters presented in the following pages show the forms and nature of letters commonly used in business. They are given as models, but they should not be followed blindly. You should study each model, trying to determine why the letter is a good one. Then you should compose several letters of similar character so that you may have practice in writing letters of different kinds. Remember that the ability to write good letters comes only by observation and practice, and that practice, in order to be of value, must be thoughtful, purposeful, and persistent. Practice patiently and diligently, for the art of writing good letters, once acquired, is of inestimable value, as through it great things may be accomplished.

Effective letters are secured only by revision. This means that after you have written a letter, you should go over your work in order to detect any errors you have made, and to determine whether or not your letter expresses the ideas you wish it to express and conveys these ideas in the clearest way possible

First look for errors in arrangement, spelling, punctuation, use of words, and sentence structure. Then consider the order in which you have given your sentences and paragraphs. Ask yourself: Do they have unity? Does the thought in one sentence lead naturally to what is given in the next sentence? Does one paragraph treat of one topic only? Have I given everything required, and omitted unnecessary details? Have I adapted myself to my reader and written so as to awaken his interest? Is my letter one that will be likely to impress its recipient favorably and cause him to act as I desire? If the answer to these questions is not in the affirmative, revise your letter and continue to revise it until you feel fairly well satisfied with it. Exercise all the skill in the choice of words and sentences of which you are capable, and you will soon learn to write letters that are clear, well expressed, tactful, and businesslike.

LETTERS ORDERING GOODS

22. A letter ordering goods should satisfy the following requirements:

1. *It should be well arranged,* so that the items stand out clearly, making the order easy to fill. The items should be arranged together in tabular form, each on a line by itself and, if there is room, with a margin on each side wider than the rest of the letter.

2. *It should be definite in every detail,* so as to eliminate the possibility of error or delay in filling the order. Include all descriptive details, such as color, size, style, price, catalog number, etc., that will help to make clear just what you want. Tell how the goods are to be sent, whether by mail, express, or freight. If they are needed by a certain date, mention the date. Unless you have an account with the firm from which you are ordering, be sure to state how payment is to be made. If a remittance is enclosed with the order, tell in just what form—whether check, draft, money or express order, cash, or stamps. Give, in full, your name and the address to which the goods are to be sent. If your express or freight address is different from your post-office address, make this fact clear.

No punctuation is necessary between the items of an order. Abbreviations are employed wherever possible. Capitalize the name of each article and any words used to distinguish it from other varieties of the same class of goods. For example: 1 lb. English Breakfast Tea; 1 yd. Black Satin Duchesse.

SPECIMEN LETTERS ORDERING GOODS

236 Penn Ave.
Pittsburgh, Pa.
June 23, 1920

The Curtis Publishing Company
Philadelphia, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Enclosed you will find a postal money order for $2.00, for which kindly send me the Saturday Evening Post for a year, beginning with the first issue in July.

Yours truly,
Henry L. Owens

623 Oak Ave.
Scranton, Pa.
September 6, 1920

Scott, Fuller and Company
Syracuse, N. Y.

Gentlemen:

Send me at once the following articles, listed in your 1920 Spring Catalog, and charge to my account:

3 doz. No. 432 Men's Cotton Hose, Black only, asst'd sizes,	@ $ 2.25
5 doz. No. 285 Women's Silk Stockings, Black, asst'd sizes,	@ $15.00
11 doz. No. 113 Children's Tan School Stockings, asst'd sizes,	@ $ 2.40
20 doz. No. 450 Men's Initial Handkerchiefs,	@ $ 1.80
1 doz. No. 236 Silkoline Umbrellas, 26 inch,	@ $26.00
2 doz. No. 82 Men's Work Shirts, asst'd sizes,	@ $14.40

Ship these goods by freight, except the Children's Stockings, which you may send by express, collect, as I need them right away.

Yours very truly,
Ellwood S. Jones

EXERCISE IV

23. Directions.—For Exercise IV write a letter to Marshall Field and Company, State St., Chicago, Ill., ordering the following furniture: Six dining room chairs, one dining room table, a buffet, a china closet, a serving table, a library table, a bookcase, and a leather-covered easy chair. Refer to their catalog, giving numbers of the various items and prices as listed in the catalog.

Tell how the goods are to be shipped and how payment is to be made.

LETTERS ACKNOWLEDGING ORDERS

24. Except in the case of small mail orders, where the sending of the goods constitutes a sufficient acknowledgment, an order should be acknowledged immediately upon its receipt. The sender of the order upon receipt of the acknowledgment feels that his order is receiving attention.

Sometimes not all the order can be filled at once. In such a case the articles available should be sent, and the letter acknowledging the order should indicate just when the rest of the goods

will reach the customer. If the order is indefinite in any respect, send as many items as possible, and ask for further information about those that are inadequately described. If this is tactfully done, the customer will not be offended, but will appreciate the interest displayed in giving him the best service possible.

Special attention should be given to the first order from a new customer. Express appreciation of his order, and include a few tactful references, if possible, to other goods, thus paving the way for later orders.

Specimen Letters Acknowledging Orders

Schenectady, N. Y.
May 3, 1920

Boren and Sutton
Pownal, Vt.

Gentlemen:

We thank you for your order of May 1, which is, we believe, the first we have ever received from you. The goods will be shipped to you this afternoon, and we trust that they will reach you in good condition and prove so satisfactory that you will give us another opportunity of serving you in the near future.

Yours truly,
The Economy Furniture Company
By J. S. H.

Syracuse, N. Y.
September 9, 1920

Mr. Ellwood S. Jones
623 Oak Avenue
Scranton, Pa.

Dear Sir:

We are glad to note the indications of growth in your business as shown by your generous order of September 6.

We have sent the Children's Stockings by express this morning, as you instructed, and the rest of your order will be shipped by freight tomorrow.

These are dependable goods on which you can make a fair profit, and we hope they will give such satisfaction that you will continue to draw on our varied stock for other goods as occasion may require.

Yours very truly,
Scott, Fuller and Company

EXERCISE V

25. Directions.—1. Acknowledge the receipt of an order from Henry Davison and Sons, of Pittsburgh, Pa., for garden seeds. Tell how and when shipment will be made.

• 2. Write a letter acknowledging the receipt of an order for groceries amounting to $142.65. Compose the heading, the address, and the complimentary close of your letter. Name the date of the order and the date when the goods will be shipped.

LETTERS CONTAINING ENCLOSURES

26. Enclosures.—With letters may be enclosed remittances, as checks, drafts, postal money orders, express money orders, etc., or invoices, and sometimes advertising matter or samples of merchandise. Money should never be sent through the mails unless the letter is registered.

When a remittance is sent, the accompanying letter should always contain a reference to the enclosure, and should specify the form of the enclosure, the amount of the remittance, and the manner in which the remittance is to be applied. At the foot of the letter, in the left-hand corner, should be written the abbreviation *Enc.* or *2 Enc.*, etc., according to the number of enclosures. This acts as a check and helps to avoid the danger that the letter may be sent out without the enclosures.

SPECIMEN LETTERS CONTAINING ENCLOSURES

456 Burr Building
Scranton, Pa.
August 30, 1920

Odell, Allen and Company
Jamestown, N. Y.

Gentlemen:

Enclosed is a check for $236.90, payable to your order, to balance our account to date. Please receipt and return the bill enclosed.

Yours truly,

Pierce H. Briscoe

2 Enc.

The National Textbook Company
Springfield, Massachusetts

Oct. 5, 1920

The College Book Shop
Williamstown, Mass.

Gentlemen:

The books you ordered on October 1 were shipped to you this morning by express, prepaid. Invoice is enclosed.

You will be interested to know that Professor Whitehead's new textbook, Modern History, will be out next month, and in view of the fact that each student of the professor's class will be a probable purchaser you will no doubt want to have it in stock. The price is $5; usual discounts.

How many copies shall we send?

Yours very truly,
The National Textbook Company
By R. L. W.

Enc.

EXERCISE VI

27. Directions.—A magazine offers one of several books free with a year's subscription. Answer the advertisement, enclosing a remittance for a year's subscription to that magazine.

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION

28. A letter of introduction should be given only after the fullest consideration, the writer having due regard not only for himself and the person introduced, but also for the interests and feelings of the person to whom the letter of introduction is addressed.

A business letter of introduction should always be personally presented; and care should be taken to present it at a time when it will cause least inconvenience to the person addressed.

The envelope is addressed to the person to whom the letter is to be presented, and is unsealed. In the lower left-hand corner the words "Introducing Mr. ....." are written, so that the bearer of the letter may be greeted at once.

A letter of introduction should be concise and sincere. It should state the purpose of the introduction, and in a few carefully chosen phrases commend the person introduced. Extravagant praise is as much out of place in a written introduction as in a personal introduction. Brevity is desirable, for it is embarrassing for the bearer to wait while a long letter is being read.

Specimen Letters of Introduction

Philadelphia, Pa.
June 29, 1920

Mr. Henry D. Parker
16 Copley Square
Boston, Mass.

Dear Mr. Parker:

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you Mr. George N. Bannon, who intends to spend some time in Boston and vicinity on business. I have known him intimately for nearly ten years, and believe you will find his tastes and yours so congenial that you will gladly give him any help he may require to make himself familiar with business conditions in Boston that relate to his work.

I think you will find him well worth knowing, and shall appreciate as a personal favor any courtesies that you may show him, not only in a business way, but in a social way as well.

Very sincerely yours,
J. R. Barnes

Cincinnati, Ohio,
June 4, 1920.

Mr. Robert V. Tyndale,
428 Mills Building,
Denver, Colo.

Dear Sir:

This letter introduces to you my friend, Mr. Samuel B. Weston, with whom I have been intimately acquainted for several years and in whose integrity I have the utmost confidence. He comes to open a real-estate office in your city.

Any assistance you may render him will be considered a favor shown to me.

Yours sincerely,
Winthrop B. Snydars.

Scranton, Pa.
May 6, 1920

Mr. George K. Wilson
242 River Street
Troy, N. Y.

Dear Mr. Wilson:

I take great pleasure in introducing to you Mr. Harry L. Wells, who plans to locate in Troy, if he can find a building suitable for his button factory.

Mr. Wells has been a business associate and close personal friend of mine for more than ten years, and is a very forceful and progressive gentleman, of absolute integrity of character. You will doubtless be able to give him much help, for which I shall be very grateful.

Very sincerely yours,

R. J. Keating

EXERCISE VII

29. Directions.—James A. Fenton, a man in your office, has been forced to move away from town because of his wife's health. He is going to a town in which you are well acquainted. Write a letter of introduction to a merchant of that town.

LETTERS OF INQUIRY

30. Letters of inquiry are frequently required in business correspondence. The subject of the inquiry may be the business standing of an individual or a firm, the price of goods, the value of some machine or device, or any one of a hundred other things.

In letters of inquiry, such as requests for catalogs, price lists, estimates, etc., which may lead to a purchase, it is not necessary to enclose postage for a reply. But when you seek information for your own benefit, accompany your letter with a self-addressed stamped envelope.

In writing letters of inquiry, be clear and concise. Assume that the reader of your letter is a very busy person, and aim to impress him favorably by the courteous and businesslike way in which you state your wants. End your letter by expressing your appreciation of whatever he can do for you, and offer to reciprocate if it is in your power to do so. The phrase

"Thanking you in advance" has been overused, and had better be omitted.

Syracuse, N. Y.
Aug. 23, 1920

Graham, Smith and Company
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Gentlemen:

We have received an application from Mr. Henry Haskins for a position on our sales force, and note that you are mentioned among his previous employers.

Kindly tell us frankly, and in strict confidence, if you found his services to you satisfactory. Is he a man that can be depended on to cover a rather large territory without very close supervision? Is he a man of good habits and of integrity? Is he easily discouraged, unable to take criticism, or likely to do his work in a rather careless way?

Mr. Haskins impressed us quite favorably at a recent interview, and we are seriously considering the advisability of employing him. You will help us greatly by giving us the information we seek. A stamped envelope is enclosed for your reply.

Very truly yours,
Sell Brothers Company
By R. L. W.

Box 234, Dalton, Pa.
Sept. 23, 1920

George Miller, Secretary
Scranton Business College
Scranton, Pa.

Dear Sir:

Your school has been recommended to me by several of my friends, and I am considering the advisability of taking your Complete Commercial Course. But before deciding, I should like a little more information.

Does the course include English Grammar and Composition? I am very weak in these subjects.

How long would it take me to complete the course? Would it be possible for me to secure a position within twenty miles of Scranton inside of six months after I begin my studies, if I devote all my time to the course?

Just what help do you give to your students in finding positions?

Let me hear from you at once. I want to get started right away.

Very truly yours,
Albert K. Hall

45 West Third St.,
Sinnamahoning, Pa.,
Sept. 26, 1920.

J. T. Rice and Company,
79 Lake St.,
Erie, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Kindly quote lowest prices, f. o. b. Sinnamahoning, Pa., via P. & E. R. R., on fresh lake fish, stating grade with price. You may quote sight draft with B/L, giving me the benefit of your best discounts. Say how soon, after receipt of order, you can make shipment.

A prompt reply will be appreciated.

Yours truly,

T. M. Dawson.

REPLIES TO INQUIRIES

31. Replies to inquiries should be prompt. If possible, they should be sent on the same day that the inquiry is received. Satisfy the needs of the inquirer, by covering clearly and completely in your reply everything about which he asks. If a circular, a catalog, or other printed matter will give the information desired, send it, and use your letter to refer to those portions that specifically reply to the inquiry.

If the inquiry is not clear, be especially careful to use tact in asking for further details. Make it seem that you, and not the writer, are to blame. Sometimes, by quoting the exact language of the ambiguous portion of the letter of inquiry, you may, without offending the writer, convince him that he was not clear in his statement. Sometimes it may be advisable to refuse requests for information. In such a case avoid an apologetic tone, for you have nothing for which to apologize. Make your refusal courteously, and, if the circumstances warrant it, explain your inability to comply with the desire of the writer, being careful to give your refusal in such a way that it will not give offense. Be careful to whom you write confidential information, especially if it is of a personal nature.

Specimen Replies to Inquiries

Pittsburgh, Pa.
Aug. 26, 1920

Sell Brothers Company
Syracuse, N. Y.

Gentlemen:

We are very glad to give you the information you seek in regard to Mr. Henry Haskins.

He can be depended upon to cover considerable territory without very close supervision. We found him to be painstaking and methodical, and more inclined than the average salesman to use initiative and energy in dealing with any unusual circumstances that arose. In several instances, this tendency on his part enabled us to win large orders away from strong competition. He is most energetic in his efforts when things are going against him.

You will find him a man of high standards of character and conduct. He is not a drinking man, smokes very moderately, is a prominent worker in his church, is very happily married, and spends his week ends with his family whenever he is not too far away to get home.

From what we have already told you, it is evident that we regard Mr. Haskins very highly. If he has any fault, it is a tendency, natural in a man of his positive type, to resent criticism. Tact is necessary in dealing with him, for he is somewhat set in his ways.

We trust that we have given you the desired information, and feel sure that if you employ Mr. Haskins you will find him a producer of results, always regardful of your interests, and never inclined to work in a superficial way.

Very truly yours,
Graham, Smith and Company
By E. R. B.

Scranton, Pa.
Sept. 24, 1920

Mr. Albert K. Hall
Box 234
Dalton, Pa.

Dear Sir:

I am very glad that you contemplate a course of study with us, and assure you that we shall be able to prepare you for a good position, if you are willing to do your share by working hard and letting nothing interfere with your steady progress.

Thorough instruction in English Grammar and Composition is an important part of the Complete Commercial Course. In our new catalog, which I have mailed to you, is a detailed synopsis of the sub-

jects included in the course, beginning on page 24. You will note that special attention is given to Business English.

While most of our students require nine months to finish the Complete Commercial Course, you can, by attending both the day and evening sessions, graduate in six months. Understand, however, that this will demand faithful attention to your studies.

We never have the slightest trouble in finding good positions for our graduates. Last month we had more calls than we could satisfy, and placed thirty-four graduates right in Lackawanna County, and twenty others outside of the county. We have an Employment Department, which gives you, free of charge, all the help you may need to secure employment. Read the testimonials, on pages 16 to 20 of the catalog, from recent graduates for whom we have secured good positions. I think these will convince you that you will have no trouble in finding a place after you have finished your course.

Let me suggest that you read the entire catalog very carefully, and then, if you have further questions to ask, come down to Scranton and visit us. I shall be glad to show you through the school and to explain just how our work is carried on.

Very truly yours,
George Miller
Secretary, Scranton Business College

A Bid on Specifications

Danville, Pa.,
June 8, 1920.

Tatwall Construction Company,
634 Stephen Girard Building,
Philadelphia, Pa.

Gentlemen:

In reply to your inquiry of May 28th, enclosing blueprints and asking price on castings, we quote you on the fifty-six (56) cast-iron columns with caps and bases, as per specifications and blueprints, the lump sum of four hundred sixty-three dollars ($463) f. o. b. Philadelphia, cash in thirty days from date of shipment. We can ship in three weeks after receipt of order.

We thank you for the inquiry and hope to be favored with your order, which will receive our prompt and careful attention.

Yours very truly,
Hartman Iron Works.

EXERCISE VIII

32. Directions.—1. Mr. John R. Page, a bookkeeper, has applied to you for a position as assistant bookkeeper in your office. Among his references he mentioned the Johnson-Endicott Company, of Johnson City, N. Y. Write to them for information concerning Mr. Page.

2. As a clerk in an electrical shop, write to the International Correspondence Schools, Scranton, Pa., for information about a Course in Interior Wiring.

3. Write a letter from the Johnson-Endicott Company in which is given the information concerning Mr. John R. Page, requested in paragraph 1.

LETTERS OF APPLICATION

33. When you write a letter of application, you are trying to sell yourself to your prospective employer. You are trying to show him that you can fill a certain position to his satisfaction. Therefore you should be very careful that nothing about your letter can impress him unfavorably. Your letter should be neat in appearance, showing no blots, erasures, or finger marks. It should be free from errors in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and the use of capital letters, and should be plainly written and divided into short paragraphs so that it will be easy to read. Unless you are asked to apply in your own handwriting, use a typewriter, if possible.

A well-planned letter of application includes three parts: (1) The introduction, which is generally only a short paragraph in which you formally apply for the position; (2) the detailed presentation of your qualifications; (3) the conclusion, which includes an appeal calculated to produce some favorable action on the part of the reader.

In writing your introduction, get to the point as soon as possible. Avoid such stereotyped expressions as, "In answer to your advertisement I wish to state." Aim to be original but do not be freakish in opening your letter. A brief statement of your reasons for thinking that you are especially well qualified

for the position will serve to interest the reader of the letter, and make him willing to give close attention to the rest of your application. You might say, "The position you have open on your sales force is one that my experience qualifies me to fill," or "Can you use the services of a salesman whose record shows that he knows how to secure orders from high-grade business men?"

If your application is designed merely to secure an interview with your prospective employer, you can present your qualifications when you call, and the letter need tell only enough about your fitness for the position to convince the reader that it will be worth his while to ask you to come for a talk with him. Avoid general statements that really mean nothing, such as "I am not afraid of work," or "I have a pretty fair education." Use a few carefully worded sentences to give definite proof of your capability. For instance, if you are applying for a position as a stenographer, it would be well to tell what makes of typewriters you can operate, how many words of dictation you can take a minute, and how rapidly you can typewrite. State also just what experience you have had—how long you have worked and what kind of work you have done. In fact, make a careful study of the requirements of the position for which you are applying, and select for presentation in your letter the facts that will show that you are able to satisfy these requirements.

If you must depend upon the letter alone to win the position, it is necessary to present your claims in greater detail. In so doing, however, endeavor to be concise, and keep in mind the reader of the letter—remember that he is probably a very busy man not at all interested in knowing how much you want a job, but desirous of learning whether you can do the work the position demands. In other words, keep your viewpoint out of the letter, and think always just how what you are writing will impress the reader of the letter. Tell him the things he wants to know. If information about your education is pertinent, give it, especially emphasizing any study or investigation you have done that has a direct bearing upon the work he wants done. Generally it is advisable to give your age, and

sometimes it helps to say something about your health and your habits. A prospective employer cannot fail to be impressed in your favor if you say in your letter something like this: "I am in vigorous health, use no liquor, dress neatly, and am dignified and forceful in my bearing." Of course you must always avoid anything that sounds like empty bragging, but at the same time you need not hesitate to speak frankly in your own behalf. The reader of your application will think better of you because of your forcefulness.

If you have reached the age when you may reasonably be expected to have a home of your own, state whether you are married or not. If you have had any experience that qualifies you for the position you are seeking, describe it fully, and refer to those who can give dependable information about your services for them. Enclose copies of any testimonials that you have. Remember, however, that nowadays most business men prefer to have prospective employes give references. Then they can write and ask for confidential information from the persons whose names have been given.

If you are at present employed, a statement of your reason for desiring to change may be made. Take care, however, not to say anything about your present position that is unreasonable or tactless. For instance, it would not impress a prospective employer favorably if you said in your letter "I am anxious to leave my present position, because I don't have any chance to get ahead," when he knows that your present employer is always glad to promote all workers who show themselves to be capable.

As a rule, the matter of salary should not be discussed in the letter. Let the employer bring up the subject. If you ask for more than he cares to pay, you may by so doing eliminate yourself from the list of candidates. On the other hand, if you set a low valuation upon your services, it is likely to be accepted. Prove that you are the man for the place. If you do this, you are likely to get what you are worth, sooner or later.

Many application letters that are otherwise excellent, fail to produce the desired result because they close weakly. Keep in

mind the need of impressing yourself strongly upon the reader of the letter as he reaches the end of your application, and try to get him to take the action you desire. If a personal interview is what you want, say something like this: "May I have an interview this afternoon? I can be reached at the telephone number given above." If you hope that the letter will win you the position, you might say "Give me a chance to prove my ability. You will not regret it." Some other good closings are: "When you wish to grant me an appointment I can be found at the address given, or with my present employers." "Will you kindly allow me to come and have a talk with you?" "As the opportunity you offer is just what I have been looking for, I trust you will let me prove to you in a personal interview my unusual qualifications for serving you."

Specimen Letters of Application

236 Appleton Street
Troy, N. Y.
April 26, 1920

Mr. John H. Harper
126 Dater Building
Albany, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

I saw your advertisement for a salesman in the Albany Sunday Times of April 24, and would like to have you consider my qualifications, which I think make it possible for me to fill the position in a satisfactory manner.

My education includes three years at the Troy High School, where I took the Commercial Course, followed by a year at the Albany Business College.

The business experience I have had since leaving school began with a position as inside salesman in the establishment of E. B. Cox, retail grocer, of this city. I spent a year there, and then secured a position with Squires, Sherry, and Galusha, wholesale grocers. I covered the territory from Troy to Whitehall on the Delaware and Hudson Railroad, and from Troy to North Adams on the Boston and Maine Railroad, until the firm went out of business four months ago. I spent two years on the road, and have an acquaintance with all the retail grocers in my territory, with whom I have established close personal relations that should be a big asset to me as a representative of your house. Since this is the territory for which you are seeking a salesman, you can readily see that my chances of rendering satisfactory service to you are unusually good.

I am twenty-four years old, have good health, and never touch liquor or tobacco. I am happily married, have one boy, belong to the Presbyterian Church, and am a member of the Masonic order.

I am a thorough plodder rather than a brilliant worker, but I produce results because I take a deep interest in my work, and am satisfied with nothing less than the best of which I am capable. I like people, and get along well with them, and can hold my own in conversation with men of affairs.

I am enclosing copies of testimonials telling of my work at school and with the firms by whom I have been employed, and refer you to Mr. E. B. Cox, 236 Second St., Troy, and Mr. George Squires, 542 Pawling, Ave., Troy, for further details as to my selling ability.

I should like very much to come to Albany and have a personal interview with you. You can reach me by Bell phone, 2367-J. Let me know what time suits your convenience.

Yours very truly,
Thomas R. Grenning

Box 265, Wellsville, Pa.
October 12, 1920

Mr. Henry Harding
210 Burr Building
Harrisburg, Pa.

Dear Sir:

I understand that you have a vacancy in your advertising department, and feel that my qualifications are worth calling to your attention.

At present I am employed as Assistant Secretary and Advertising Manager of the Timber Investment Company, of Wellsville, and have complete charge of the advertising and the correspondence. During the two years that I have occupied this position, I have prepared considerable newspaper advertising, several booklets, and a series of follow-up letters that have produced very good results. I am sending, in a separate envelope, specimens of my work.

My reason for seeking a change is that I have reached the limit of advancement, and I want to secure a place where I can earn more money. I have investigated several openings, and am convinced that your company offers the possibilities that I am seeking.

I am 28 years old, am married, have fine health, and am studious and painstaking. I have a thorough knowledge of business correspondence, commercial law, and the writing and laying out of newspaper advertising, catalogs, booklets, and mail-order advertisements.

If after looking over the specimens of my work that I am sending you, you think that you would like to have me present my claims in person, I shall be very glad to do so at any time that suits your convenience

Yours very sincerely,
Harry J. Sheldon

88 Sixtieth Street
Chicago, Ill.
Sept. 24, 1920

Manufacturer
Care of Evening News
Chicago, Ill.

Dear Sir:

I feel that I could fill very creditably the position you have advertised.

I am twenty-one years old and have just come to Chicago from Ridgewood, Ohio, because I want to be in a larger field. I was with the Ridgewood Lumber and Building Company two years as a stenographer. I am enclosing a copy of a letter from that company regarding my service, and I refer you to them for any further information you may wish. I did all of their stenographic and typewriting work, handling such work as bills, specifications, etc., in addition to the usual correspondence. During the last year of my service, I wrote much of the routine correspondence on my own initiative.

This letter is a fair sample of my typewriting. I use correct English, can take dictation accurately as rapidly as most men dictate, and can use the Remington and the Underwood machines. I feel that I can, with all proper modesty, claim to be a high-grade stenographer in every sense of the word. I have no habits that would handicap me.

My salary with the Ridgewood Company was $125 a month. I am not so much concerned about salary as I am about a place where there is opportunity for hard, aggressive, loyal work and where such work will be appreciated. I am perfectly willing to work for a week without any obligation on your part to retain me unless my service is entirely satisfactory.

May I call for a talk?

Respectfully yours,
David Johns

918 Olive St.,
Binghamton, N. Y.,
October 24, 1920.

327 Beekman St.,
Binghamton, N. Y.

Gentlemen:

Your advertisement in today's Times for a person to take charge of office work interests me. I should like you to consider my application for the position.

My experience and training have prepared me for these duties. I am twenty-three years of age, and since my graduation from the

Binghamton Business College, three years ago, I have been employed in the office of the General Electric Company, having charge of the correspondence. During these three years, I have acquired a broad understanding of the principles governing correct English and of business methods, and have learned to avoid the stock phrases that up-to-date business men have discarded.

As to my character and ability, I refer by permission to Mr. Charles Bohn, office manager of the General Electric Company, and to Rev. Henry Adamson, pastor of the Grace Reformed Church of this city.

If you will telephone me at 3916-M making an appointment, I can call at any time convenient to you.

Yours truly,

Julia F. Spencer.

EXERCISE IX

34. Directions.—For Exercise IX write a letter applying for the position mentioned in one of the following advertisements:

Wanted.—A young person as assistant bookkeeper in a wholesale grocery. Must answer in own handwriting. References required. Box 24, Times.

Wanted.—Stenographer and typist; lady or gentleman; must know correct English and business correspondence. Lock Box 59, Troy, N. Y.

LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION

35. The first point to keep in mind in connection with letters of recommendation is that they should be truthful. Do not recommend an unworthy person. Exaggeration is a fault common in this kind of letters. The writers of recommendations seem to forget that a highly colored letter, loaded with extremely laudatory statements, is likely to hurt rather than help the one in whose behalf it is written. There are two kinds of letters of recommendation: General letters addressed "To the Public," or "To Whom It May Concern," and special letters addressed to some particular individual.

General recommendations are given to the applicant unsealed, and therefore can contain only general statements. Brevity is

desirable in this type of letter, for it is possible to offer only a broad opinion as to the general fitness of the applicant.

Special recommendations are much more valuable, for they give the writer a chance to express freely and fully his opinion as to the fitness of the applicant for a certain position. If the writer shows that he understands the requirements of the position, he increases greatly the weight of his influence. The ideal letter of recommendation is one in which the writer is evidently trying to serve the interests of both the applicant and the prospective employer, by giving the latter such a detailed and carefully considered statement of the qualifications of the applicant as will show just how well he fits the needs of the position in question.

General Letter of Recommendation

Atlanta, Ga.
March 10, 1920

To Whom It May Concern:

Mr. Joseph Shippen has been in our employ as carpet salesman for the last five years. We are pleased to state that he has, by his strict attention to duty and by his honesty and integrity, won the esteem and confidence of his employers, associates, and customers. It is with regret that we part with Mr. Shippen, who resigns his situation solely on account of failing health.

Enochs & Simpson

Special Letters of Recommendation

Syracuse, N. Y.
May 14, 1920

Mr. E. S. Williams
Secretary of the Board of Control
Allegheny, Pa.

Dear Sir:

Mr. Philip J. Allison has informed me that he has applied for the professorship of mathematics in the Allegheny High School, and desires me to write you a word of commendation in his behalf.

I have been closely associated with Mr. Allison for the last three years and have had an excellent opportunity to observe his teaching. Without exaggeration, I may say that he is a most thorough mathematician and a conscientious and inspiring teacher. His work as an instructor in the Syracuse University has been of the highest order, and the school or college that secures his services I shall consider fortunate.

Personally I shall be sorry to lose Mr. Allison's services as my assistant. I, however, heartily wish him the success and advancement he so well deserves, and I take pleasure in commending him to you.

Yours very respectfully,

A. T. Dodge
Professor of Mathematics
Syracuse University

Indianapolis, Ind.,
May 26, 1920.

Mr. R. R. Strong,
9 Carter Bldg.,
Indianapolis, Ind.

Dear Sir:

One of my employes, Miss Amelia Sutherland, informs me that she has applied for a position as stenographer in your office. Miss Sutherland has worked for me for six years and has filled, in an extremely satisfactory way, a very difficult position. I am sorry to lose such valuable services, but as I am about to move my business to Chicago, I am forced to let Miss Sutherland go.

Besides carrying on the duties of her position in an entirely creditable manner, Miss Sutherland, being possessed of a strong and delightful personality, has proved herself an influence for good among my office employes. She has always been able to gain and hold the respect and friendship of her coworkers, and this trait, you have doubtless observed, is of inestimable value to an employer.

I recommend her most highly to any one who is desirous of securing the services of a faithful, reliable, wide-awake, painstaking stenographer. It will give me pleasure to see her located with some employer who will appreciate the quality of the services she renders.

Yours truly,

James M. Winters.

EXERCISE X

36. Directions.—For Exercise X, write a recommendation for a clerk who has been with your firm for fifteen years and who is now leaving because the firm is going out of business. State his experience, success, and qualifications.

BUSINESS WORDS AND PHRASES

37. Since an understanding of the business words and phrases current in the speech and letters of business men will prove valuable, a list of some of those most commonly used is here given for reference. Study these so that you may understand their uses and meanings when you hear business men using them or see them in letters, newspapers, or other written matter.

Other terms common in business circles are given under Glossary of Business Terms, pages 789 to 798 in the Winston Simplified Dictionary.

LIST OF BUSINESS WORDS AND PHRASES

NOTE.—*L.* after a word or term denotes a Latin word; *Fr.*, a French word.

Above Par.—Bonds, stocks, and other articles are *above par* when they will sell for more than their face value.

Account Current.—(1) A running account. (2) A detailed statement of transactions between persons or firms.

Account Sales.—A detailed statement of the sale of goods by a commission merchant, showing also the expenses, the after charges, and the net proceeds.

Administrator.—A man appointed by the court to settle the estate of a person deceased.

Administratrix.—A woman appointed by the court to settle the estate of a person deceased.

Ad Valorem (*L.*).—According to value. A custom-house term, relating to the estimating of duties upon the value of imported goods.

Affidavit.—A written declaration under oath.

Annuity.—(1) An annual allowance. (2) A sum to be paid yearly for a given number of years or for life.

Annul.—To make void; to cancel.

Antedate.—To date before the actual time.

Appraisal.—The act of placing a value on goods.

Appraiser.—A person appointed to value real or personal property.

Arbitration.—The adjustment of a dispute by a person or persons chosen by the parties concerned.

Assets.—The funds, property, and total resources of a person or company in business.

Assignee.—A person to whom the property of a bankrupt or an insolvent debtor is transferred for adjustment, for the benefit of the insolvent's creditors.

Assignment.—The act of transferring property to the assignee.

Attachment.—A warrant issued for the purpose of seizing a man's property.

Balance Sheet.—A financial statement in condensed form, showing the condition and progress of a business.

Bankable.—Receivable at a bank at par value.

Bank Balance.—Net amount on deposit at a bank.

Bear.—Among stock brokers, one who having "sold short"—that is, sold what he has not yet bought—desires the price of the stock to fall so that he may buy at a lower rate than he has sold at, and thus make a profit. He will do all he can to "bear down" the price.

Below Par.—Bonds, stocks, and other articles are *below par* when they sell for less than their face value.

Bill of Lading.—A written account of goods shipped and the terms of shipment, having the signature of the carrier's agent, and given to the shipper as a receipt.

Bill of Sale.—A writing given by the seller to the buyer, transferring the ownership of personal property.

Board of Trade.—An association of business men for the regulation and advancement of commercial interests.

Bona Fide (*L.*).—In good faith.

Bond.—(1) An interest-bearing certificate, secured by mortgage or otherwise. (2) A writing by which a person binds himself and others to certain conditions.

Bonded Goods.—Goods that are stored in a bonded warehouse or in bonded cars, and for which the owner has given bonds securing the payment of import duties or of internal revenue before their removal or on their arrival at some inland city of entry.

Bonded Warehouse.—A building in which goods are kept until the importer (1) pays the duties, (2) pays the internal revenue tax, or (3) reëxports the goods.

Bondsman.—A person who gives security for the faithful performance of a contract on the part of another person.

Bonus.—(1) A premium for a loan or for other privileges. (2) An additional allowance.

Broker.—An agent who conducts the buying and selling of stocks for other persons.

Brokerage.—The commission charged by a broker for buying and selling stocks. The usual rate is one-eighth of one per cent., or $\frac{1}{8}\%$; that is, $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per share of $100.

Bucket Shop.—The office of a supposed stock broker, whose real business is rash speculation on exchange quotations with clients' money.

Bull.—One who operates to increase the values of stocks in the market that he may sell his own to better advantage. He labors to "toss up" the price.

Bullion.—Uncoined gold or silver in the shape of bars or ingots.

Call Loan.—A loan payable on demand.

Capital.—(1) The money or other means invested in a business or available for it. (2) The money available for conducting a business in addition to that invested in the plant and equipment.

Capital Stock.—The capital of a corporation as represented by the shares.

Charter.—(1) A paper from the government defining the rights and privileges of corporations. (2) To hire or let an instrument of transportation, as a ship, a railway car.

Charter Party.—A written contract for the hiring or chartering of a ship.

Chattel.—Any kind of property except real estate; as, merchandise, notes and accounts, leases of real estate, etc.

Check.—An order on a bank drawn by a depositor.

Clearing House.—A kind of banking exchange established in some of the large cities for the convenience of daily settlements. The drafts and checks of the various banks on

each other are mutually exchanged without the individual presentation of each at the banks, and a balance is struck, which balance only is paid in cash.

Collateral.—Pledges of stocks, notes, or chattels for the security of loans and other indebtedness.

Commerce.—(1) The business of exchanging commodities between different places; mercantile business in general, as carried on between individuals or companies of different countries or of the same country. (2) In a restricted sense, the shipping that belongs to a country.

Commission Agent.—A person who does business on a commission, or payment for work done. This is usually reckoned at a fixed rate per cent.

Common Law.—The unwritten law, which receives its binding force from long usage, in distinction from the written, or statute, law.

Common Stock.—The stock that entitles the owner to an equal proportionate dividend of the corporate profits and assets with one shareholder or class of shareholders, having no advantage, priority, or preference over another class of shareholders.

Consignee.—The agent or the person to whom goods are sent to be sold on commission. The goods are said to be consigned, and are called a *consignment*.

Consignor.—The party who consigns his goods to an agent.

Contra (*L.*).—On the opposite side.

Copartnership.—The joining of two or more persons into one firm for the purpose of carrying on an enterprise. It has the same meaning as partnership.

Coupon.—An interest note or a certificate attached to a bond or principal note that is cut off and collected when the note or certificate is due.

Credentials.—Testimonials giving authority.

Currency.—Both coin and paper money that is in accepted circulation.

Demurrage.—A sum charged for delay in removing freight or in unloading a vessel or a car.

Discount.—(1) A deduction made for interest in advancing money on a bill or note not due. (2) Below the par value.

Dishonor.—(1) A failure to pay an obligation when due. (2) A failure to accept a draft when presented for acceptance.

Dividends.—The net profits of a stock company that are divided among the stockholders at stated times according to the shares of stock each one holds.

Dockage.—Charge for the use of a dock. A deduction, as from wages, or in weight because of impurities.

Dower.—The right of a widow to a one-third interest in all the real estate owned by her husband at any time after their marriage.

Draft.—A written order or request for the payment of money at a certain time.

Drawee.—One on whom a draft is drawn; the payer.

Drawer.—The person who draws a draft and thus asks the drawee to pay to the payee named.

Duress.—Personal restraint or compulsion from fear of personal injury or imprisonment.

Earnest.—Part of purchase money paid or part of goods delivered to bind a verbal contract.

Effects.—Goods or property of any kind, including debts due; resources.

Embargo.—An order of the government prohibiting ships from departing or landing.

Equity.—The principles of right and justice, especially as applied to the correction of statute law in extreme cases.

Equity of Redemption.—The right allowed to a mortgagor of a reasonable time in which to redeem lands mortgaged.

Exchange Quotations.—The publication in commercial centers and in the leading journals of the current prices of shares on sale at stock exchanges.

Execution.—A writ that authorizes an officer to carry into effect the judgment of the court.

Face Value.—The value written, or printed, on the face of a bond, note, or other commercial paper.

Fee Simple.—A title to real estate held by a person in his own right and without conditions.

First Mortgage.—A mortgage that must be satisfied before other mortgages on the same property.

Fiscal Year.—The financial year of a government or of a business. A fiscal year of the United States government begins with July 1 of one year and ends with June 30 of the following year.

Forced Sale.—Sale made under compulsion.

Forwarder.—An agent who attends to the conveyance of goods, especially reshipping.

Funded Debt.—Debts converted into a permanent loan or into bonds payable with interest.

Gross Earnings.—The entire earnings before deductions have been made for necessary expenses.

Gross Weight.—(1) Weight of merchandise, including the case or wrapping. (2) The weight estimated at the rate of 2,240 pounds to a ton.

Guarantee, or **Guaranty.**—(1) A surety for the performance of a contract in case the party making the contract fails to keep it. (2) A security against loss.

Honor.—To accept a draft or to pay it when due.

Impost.—Duty on goods paid by the importer.

Indemnify.—To recompense for injury or loss.

Indemnity.—(1) Exemption from loss, past or future; insurance. (2) Recompense for injury or loss.

Indenture.—A writing containing a contract.

Indorse.—To write one's name on the back of a note, draft, or other document.

Injunction.—A legal writ by which the party is restrained from doing a certain act.

Inland Bill.—A draft between parties in the same country.

Insolvent.—Unable to pay debts; bankrupt.

Intestate.—Dying without having left a will.

In Transit.—On the road; not brought to an end or destination.

Inventory.—An itemized schedule, or list, of goods and other property, with their value as then estimated.

Invoice.—An itemized bill of goods sent to a purchaser.

Invoice Book.—A book in which invoices are copied.

Jettison (also *Jetson*).—The goods voluntarily thrown overboard to lighten a ship in cases of extreme peril.

Jobber.—One who buys goods from the manufacturers and importers, and sells them to retailers.

Job Lot.—(1) An irregular assortment. (2) Miscellaneous goods unsold at the end of the season.

Judgment.—The decision of the court.

Lease.—A contract granting possession and use of property for a specified time.

Legacy.—A bequest; a gift of money or property by will.

Lessee.—One to whom a lease is made.

Letter of Credit.—An open letter authorizing the bearer to receive money on the credit of the writer. (Generally issued by banking houses to travelers in foreign countries.)

Liabilities.—Debts and claims that a person or a company is under legal obligation to pay.

License.—A legal permit to carry on a certain business.

Lien (*Fr., Bond*).—A legal claim on property, including the power to prevent its sale without satisfying the claim.

Lighter.—A flat-bottomed boat used in loading and unloading vessels that cannot sail up to the wharf.

Lighterage.—Charges for the use of a lighter.

Manifest.—A list of articles comprising a ship's cargo.

Margin.—Variance between an article's buying and selling price. Deposit required by a broker when a customer gives him an order to buy securities or to sell them short.

Marine.—Pertaining to the sea.

Maturity.—The date when commercial paper becomes due.

Mercantile Agency.—A company whose business it is to obtain and circulate among its patrons information as to the business standing of merchants and traders.

Mercantile Law.—Law pertaining to business transactions.

Mileage.—Miles of a railroad or the distance traveled on the railroad.

Mortgage.—A lien on land or other property as security for money advanced or other obligation.

Mortgagor.—The person who gives a mortgage.

Mortgagee.—The person in whose favor a mortgage is given.

Municipal Bond.—A bond issued by a town or city.

Negotiable.—That which is transferable by delivery, assignment, or indorsement.

Net.—Clear of all charges or deductions.

Net Earnings.—The sum that is left after the necessary expenses have been deducted from the gross earnings.

Net Proceeds.—The remainder after deducting charges from sales.

Net Weight.—(1) Weight after deducting all allowances. (2) Weight estimated at the rate of 2,000 pounds to a ton.

Nominal.—Existing in name only.

Notary, or **Notary Public.**—An officer authorized by law to administer oaths, take acknowledgments of deeds and other papers, and to protest notes and drafts for non-acceptance or non-payment.

Open Account.—An unsettled account with a firm or an individual.

Outlawed.—A term applied to a debt that has run beyond the time when the law will enforce payment.

Overdraft.—More money checked out than the amount deposited.

Par Value.—The nominal value; usually the printed or written value of any commercial paper.

Parol.—A declaration; especially one not written or sealed.

Pawnbroker.—One who lends money on goods, possessing the goods and the power to dispose of them if the money is not returned according to the contract.

Payee.—The person to whom money is to be paid.

Payer.—The person who pays or promises to pay.

Plant.—The entire outfit necessary to carry on a trade or a mechanical business. It includes the real estate as well as the tools and machinery.

Postdate.—To date after the actual time of writing.

Power of Attorney.—A written instrument giving an agent authority to act for his principal in matters requiring such written delegation of power.

Preferred Stock.—That stock which entitles the owner to dividends out of the net profits before or in preference to the holder of the common stock.

Premium.—(1) The amount paid above par value. (2) The difference between market value and par value when the article bought is above par.

Price Current.—A list of merchandise with market values annexed.

Primage.—A percentage allowed to the master of a vessel on the amount of freight earned.

Pro Rata (*L., In proportion*).—A proportional distribution.

Protecting a Draft.—Accepting or paying a draft to prevent it from being dishonored or protested.

Protest.—(1) A formal declaration made by a notary public that a note was not paid at maturity or that a bill of exchange was not accepted when presented or was not paid when due. (2) An official statement by the master of a vessel that damage to the ship or the cargo was caused by stress of weather and not by negligence.

Proxy.—(1) The written permission of one person to vote for another. (2) The person who thus votes for another.

Receiver.—A person appointed to take charge of a corporation on its dissolution and to distribute its property according to law.

Rescind.—To revoke; to annul; to countermand.

Resources.—Money, property, or that which can be converted into property; as, claims against other persons on either written or verbal promises.

Revocation.—The recall of authority conferred on another, as the revocation of an agency.

Salvage.—The allowance made by law to persons who voluntarily assist in saving a ship or its cargo from peril.

Shipping Clerk.—A person who attends to the shipping of goods.

Sight Draft.—A draft payable on presentation, or *at sight*.

Silent Partner.—One who shares in the profits of a business, but whose name does not appear in the firm name and who takes no active part in the business.

Sinking Fund.—A sum of money set apart for the redemption of debts.

Stock.—(1) Capital invested in a trading company. (2) Goods on hand.

Stock Exchange.—A place where brokers and bankers meet to buy and sell stocks, bonds, etc.

Stockholder.—A person who owns shares in a joint stock company or corporation.

Stoppage in Transit.—The right that a seller has to stop goods at any time before they reach the buyer to whom he has shipped them.

Surplus.—Profits remaining after all expenses and dividends have been paid.

Syndicate.—A number of capitalists who unite to conduct some extended commercial enterprise.

Tare (*Fr.*).—An allowance for the weight of boxes, barrels, etc. in which goods are shipped.

Tenant.—A person who holds or occupies property under a lease.

Tender.—An offer; a proposal for acceptance.

Tickler.—A book containing a memorandum of notes and debts arranged in the order of their maturity.

Time Draft.—A draft maturing at a future specified time.

Trade Discount.—A discount or series of discounts from list prices made to dealers.

Trustee.—A person to whom any business or property is committed as a trust.

Underwriter.—A person who insures; so called from writing his name under the conditions of the policy.

Usury.—The taking of more than the legal rate of interest.

Voucher.—Such papers or documents as prove the truth of accounts; thus, a *receipt* is a voucher for the payment of money.

Watered Stock.—Stock that purports to represent, but does not represent in good faith, the money or money's worth actually paid into the treasury of the corporation.

Waybill.—A document containing a list of goods sent by railroad.

Wharfage.—Money paid for the use of a wharf.

Wharfinger.—The owner or keeper of a wharf.

Wholesale (*To sell whole*).—To sell goods in large quantities; selling to retailers rather than consumers.

Working Capital.—The cash available for conducting a business.

Writ.—An order issued from a court of law to one of its officers, as in the case of a writ of attachment; or to one or more litigants, as in the case of an injunction writ.

A DICTIONARY LESSON IN SPELLING AND PRONOUNCING SOME COMMERCIAL WORDS

38. Directions. - Separate the words in Exercise XI into their syllables and place the marks of accent. Then copy the form for the correct pronunciation of each word, as it is given in the dictionary. You need not copy the definitions from the dictionary, because the words have been defined in the preceding list.

Give special attention to the spelling and pronunciation of each word. After you have done this, read the words aloud several times, until you can readily pronounce each one correctly. Then construct a sentence for each word, using the word correctly as a business term.

EXERCISE XI

1. administratrix
2. chattel
3. consignee
4. coupon
5. discount
6. embargo
7. indemnify
8. inventory
9. lien
10. outlawed
11. salvage
12. trustee
13. underwriter
14. voucher
15. waybill

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully. DO NOT HOLD THIS WORK until another lesson is ready.

GOOD ENGLISH

(PART 15)

BUSINESS LETTERS—(Continued)

MISCELLANEOUS BUSINESS LETTERS

1. The preceding lesson explains the character of various kinds of business letters and gives excellent illustrations of such letters. It must not be thought, however, that these are the only kinds you may be called upon to write. The matters about which business letters may be written are practically unlimited. There are as many kinds of business letters as there are phases of business, and each letter is written for some definite purpose. It will be well, therefore, to examine a number of specimens showing how particular cases have been handled. It is needless to say, however, that none of these specimens are to be learned and used as the student's own. Their general style can be imitated, but the student should endeavor to preserve his own personality in the letters he writes.

In fact, there are no set forms that can be followed blindly, and no definite rules can be given concerning business letters. First of all, the underlying principles governing letter writing should be observed. Then the purpose of the letter, the question or questions involved, the personality and taste of the person to whom the letter is addressed, and the relations between

COPYRIGHTED BY INTERNATIONAL TEXTBOOK COMPANY. ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

the writer and the reader should be considered. In all cases, tact and courtesy should characterize the letters.

Letter of Resignation

Scranton, Pa.,
Jan. 23, 1920.

Mr. George W. Graham,
Scranton, Pa.

Dear Mr. Graham:

I have been offered a position in Detroit that seems to give me better opportunities for broadening my experience than my present position affords. I expect therefore to leave Scranton in the near future, and hereby resign my position with you.

My relations with you have been very pleasant and I appreciate the consideration and courtesy you have always shown me. To show my appreciation, I am willing to defer my departure until you have succeeded in filling my place and the new man has become thoroughly familiar with the duties of the position.

Yours sincerely,
John S. Murray.

Letter Requesting a Favor

Scranton, Pa.,
Aug. 7, 1920.

Elwell, Caron and Company,
Cleveland, Ohio.

Gentlemen:

Our account with you, amounting to $256.80, matures on August 20. Will you kindly grant an extension of thirty days in settling this obligation?

We regret the necessity of asking this favor, and trust that our promptness hitherto in settling our bills will lead you to consider this unusual request favorably. The unseasonably cold weather that has prevailed during the past month or so has materially reduced the amount of our sales, and labor troubles in this city have also made inroads in our receipts. The prospects for a busy season during the next few months are excellent, however, and we confidently expect to be able to pay you in full not later than September 20.

Be assured that the granting of this extension will be greatly appreciated.

Yours very truly,
Parker and Butts
by W. N. B.

Letter Declining an Appointment

Lansing, Mich.,
Aug. 3, 1920.

Mr. Arthur G. Sprague,
Secretary, Board of Education,
Lansing, Mich.

Dear Sir:

It is a source of much gratification to me to learn that I have been selected as the seventh-grade teacher in the Oak Street school.

I would be very glad to accept the position, but I must decline the offer with much regret. Owing to my mother's ill health I feel that I must give up my teaching and devote myself entirely to her care.

Accept my deep appreciation of the compliment you have paid me in offering me the appointment.

Yours very truly,
(Miss) Cora H. Ransom

Letter of Censure

Scranton, Pa.
October 10, 1920

Mr. Charles A. Brown
Hotel Holland
Akron, Ohio

Dear Sir:

The record of your sales for the past few months shows a disappointing decline in business. As all the other men are producing excellent results, and are enthusiastic over both present and future prospects, the question naturally arises, "What is the trouble?" Your territory has always yielded splendid returns until recently, and you have a large clientele of steady purchasing power.

Upon careful investigation, we can find only one cause—your neglect of business due to dissipation and bad habits.

It is not my purpose to preach a sermon to you. You are a man of intelligence and of sufficient common sense to know that dissipation and bad habits never lead to success. Sooner or later, the man of such indulgences goes down and out.

You owe it to yourself, to your family, and to this firm to turn over a new leaf and to make a new start. I know you can do this, and will if you try. I also want you to prove yourself worthy of the confidence placed in you and to produce the business of which you are capable. Why not brace up and show what you can do?

Very truly yours,
J. C. Motley, Manager,
H. M. Alvord and Company

Reply to Letter of Censure

Akron, Ohio
October 15, 1920

Mr. J. C. Motley, Manager,
H. M. Alvord and Company
Scranton, Pa.

Dear Sir:

I am very sorry that my actions have made it necessary for you to reprimand me. I realize that I have not been coming up to your standard lately, but I intend to make use of the opportunity you offer me to reinstate myself.

My only excuse for my actions is that my home life has been very unhappy. I became depressed and lost my grip.

Your letter aroused me to a realization of my condition and your kindness and fair treatment to me in the past make me wish to regain your respect.

I shall try to increase my orders from now on, and I hope that you will receive no more reports of my intemperance.

Yours sincerely,
Charles A. Brown

Letters of Complaint

15 Wyoming Ave.,
Binghamton, N. Y.,
October 12, 1920.

R. S. White and Sons,
Philadelphia, Pa.

Gentlemen:

We are very much disappointed in not receiving on time the goods we recently ordered of you.

In fixing the date on which the goods should be received, we felt that we allowed you ample time for filling the order, and more than the ordinary time required for transit, so that unless some unusual event happened, the shipment should have arrived well within the period named.

We have counted upon these goods to meet known demands of our customers, so that their non-arrival has caused a serious loss in our business.

Unless satisfactory explanation is forthcoming, we can hardly afford to continue to give you our trade.

Very truly yours,
J. Brown and Company.

234 Electric Ave.
Rochester, N. Y.
Sept. 14, 1920

The Business Book Bureau
453 Broadway
New York City

Gentlemen:

Two weeks ago, I ordered your six-volume set of books on Business Management, sending you a check in full payment and urging immediate shipment, as I need the books now. Naturally, I expected to receive the set inside of a week, but it did not come until this morning. To add to my disappointment, when I inspected the volumes I found that the first two were imperfect, having several torn pages and defective bindings. I am therefore returning the two books to you by express, collect, and ask you to send me two perfect volumes at once.

Yours truly,
F. Lee Stark

A Reply to a Letter of Complaint

THE BUSINESS BOOK BUREAU
453 Broadway
New York City

Sept. 17, 1920

Mr. F. Lee Stark
234 Electric Avenue
Rochester, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

We regret exceedingly the double annoyance to which you have been subjected in connection with the books you ordered from us. The delay in shipping the books is, at this time of the year, unavoidable, as this is our busy season and also the time when the demands upon transportation facilities are unusually heavy. Your order was filled three days after it was received, and so most of the delay was the fault of the express company.

You did exactly right in returning the faulty volumes at our expense. We have an inspection service that is supposed to throw out all imperfect books in the bindery, but no matter how careful we are, mistakes will happen, and in view of your great need of the books, we are more than usually disturbed by the blunder. We have sent you two perfect volumes and hope that you will receive them promptly and be able to make good use of them.

Very truly yours,
The Business Book Bureau

EXERCISE I

2. Directions.—1. Write a letter to Hill, Haskins and Company of 16 Fifth St., Newark, N. J., complaining that you have not yet received some hardware, ordered thirty days ago. Tell how the failure to receive these goods has inconvenienced you and ask them to explain.

2. Write Hill, Haskins and Company's reply to your letter.

Letters Requesting Payment

Philadelphia, Pa.
July 7, 1920

Howley Manufacturing Company
Baltimore, Md.

Gentlemen:

The enclosed statement will call your attention to the fact that your account with us is a few days overdue. The amount involved is small—$23.40—but we have many small accounts on our books, and if they are not settled promptly we are burdened with extra bookkeeping expense. We hope, therefore, that you will send us a remittance at once.

Very truly yours,
Smith and Hanson

North Adams, Mass.
Oct. 17, 1920

John B. Mackey and Company
Pownal, Vermont

Gentlemen:

We have not yet received a check from you in settlement of your overdue account with us, which should have been paid in full on September 15.

It is not our desire to annoy you by too great insistence upon this matter, but delay in payment causes us considerable trouble and expense.

We are willing to give you all possible consideration, but the demands of our business require us to bring all past-due accounts up to date. Kindly let us hear from you at once.

Very truly yours,
The Berkshire Auto Supply Company

229 Lackawanna Ave.
Scranton, Pa.
February 15, 1921

Mr. Robert B. Kissinger
Newport, Maine

Dear Sir:

We enclose a statement of your account, showing a balance due of $693. Will you kindly oblige us with a remittance for this amount?

Have you secured a full stock for your spring trade? Perhaps you may be interested in some of the goods described in our new catalog, a copy of which goes to you under separate cover. Look it over, and let us have your order if you are in the market.

Very truly yours,
The Pocono Hardware Company
A. M. Marsden, Manager

209 Penn Ave.
Scranton, Pa.
January 20, 1921

The John Barnes Company
Syracuse, N. Y.

Gentlemen:

We find that your account is considerably overdue, and we wonder if you cannot favor us at once with one-half the amount.

From your own experience, you know what difficulties arise from overdue accounts, and how important it is that all of us meet our business obligations promptly. We naturally cannot do our part if our customers do not do theirs.

We trust we may have a remittance from you by return mail.

Very truly yours,
The Pierce Wholesale Company

Stroudsburg, Pa.
Dec. 13, 1920

Mrs. John J. Hubert
Stroudsburg, Pa.

Dear Madam:

Pardon us for calling your attention to your account for November. This was due on the first of this month but has no doubt been overlooked by you.

A prompt remittance will be very much appreciated.

Very truly yours,
The Stroudsburg Bazaar

Stroudsburg, Pa.
Jan. 3, 1921

Mrs. John J. Hubert
Stroudsburg, Pa.

Dear Madam:

We have received no reply to our letter of December 13, in which we called your attention to your overdue account with us. We hope that you will settle this obligation at once, for we cannot afford to carry it in our books any longer.

Very truly yours,
The Stroudsburg Bazaar

Stroudsburg, Pa.
Jan. 15, 1921

Mrs. John J. Hubert
Stroudsburg, Pa.

Dear Madam:

We have already written twice to you with reference to your long overdue account, and have received no reply.

An immediate remittance in full is requested. Otherwise we shall be obliged to take definite action to protect our rights in this matter.

We regret that our letters of December 13 and January 3 with reference to your long-overdue account have met with no reply. We must now ask that you send us a check for the amount, $216.35, to reach us by January 25.

We assure you that we have no desire to embarrass or trouble you, but we do not feel that we can let this account run any longer, and we trust that you will see that it is for your interest to adjust the matter without delay.

Very truly yours,
The Stroudsburg Bazaar

EXERCISE II

3. Directions.—1. Write a letter from Messrs. Ball and Bush, grocers, of Atlas, S. C., to Mr. Samuel R. Snowden, of the same place, calling his attention to a balance due (give the amount) for groceries bought, and requesting a remittance.

2. Write a letter from Mr. Snowden to Messrs. Ball and Bush, in which he requests them to send him an itemized statement of his account for groceries, showing balance due them.

3. Write Ball and Bush's letter in which they speak of enclosing the itemized statement requested by Mr. Snowden and again request that he make prompt settlement.

LETTER REQUESTING A BID ON A SUBCONTRACT

J. Howard Freeman Company
Builders and Contractors
19 Broad St.
Newark, N. J.

Sept. 6, 1920.

The Acme Iron Company,
25 Wyoming Ave.,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

We have seen your advertisement in the Iron Age. Will you kindly send us, as soon as possible, your lowest bid on the iron work for a new bank building? This structure is for the Jersey City Safe Deposit Company and must be completed by July 1, 1921.

The architect this day sends you, by registered mail, blueprints and specifications which show the style and weight of the ornamental work. Since the drafting of these prints, the bank officials have made some changes in the office furnishings. These increase the quantity of the ornamental iron grille and change the shape of the iron grille. The style is not changed.

A recent fire in our architect's office destroyed valuable data and instruments. As new drawings cannot be made for a month, kindly send a competent representative here. He can measure the above-mentioned changes and we will fully explain them to him.

Heavy obligations bind us to complete the work within the specified time. Therefore, kindly name the earliest date on which you can ship this work to Jersey City, N. J. All material must be quoted f. o. b. cars, at destination.

The successful bidder must furnish approved bond or deposit a certified check, in the sum of six hundred dollars, as a guarantee for fulfilment of the contract within the time named in the bid. Each bidder must accompany his bid by a certified check for 10 per cent. of the amount of his bid as a guarantee that he will execute the contract within five days after it is awarded to him. Bids unaccompanied by such checks will not be considered.

We shall appreciate a prompt reply.

Yours very truly,
J. Howard Freeman Company,
W. S. Roberts,
Secretary.

W. S. R./A.

I L T 268—28

REPLIES TO LETTER REQUESTING A BID ON A SUBCONTRACT

Scranton, Pa.,
Sept. 9, 1920.

J. Howard Freeman Company,
Newark, N. J.

Gentlemen:

The blueprints and specifications that you mentioned in your letter of September 6, reached us safely this morning.

Our draftsman, Mr. E. O. Frederick, will leave tomorrow evening for your city. We consider him fully competent to take all necessary measurements. He hopes to meet you at nine o'clock the next morning. Kindly give to him, promptly, all necessary information concerning the changes that affect the iron work. As soon as possible after his return, we will send you a bid.

We furnished the ornamental iron grille work for the Dime National Bank building in your city, for the Metropolitan Museum in Plainfield, and for the Wormser Auditorium in East Orange. We are well equipped to fill promptly orders for this kind of work.

Yours truly,
Acme Iron Company.

P. B. L./M.

Scranton, Pa.,
Sept. 14, 1920.

J. Howard Freeman Company,
Newark, N. J.

Gentlemen:

We will deliver, f. o. b. cars, Jersey City, N. J., all the ornamental iron grille for bank inclosure for the Jersey City Safe Deposit Company's new building, for twenty-seven hundred forty dollars ($2,740).

This bid covers all the iron grille called for in your blueprints and specifications, as well as the additional grille made necessary by recent changes, as explained by you to our draftsman, Mr. Frederick. This material will be delivered to you on or before November 10, 1920.

We enclose certified check for $274 as required, this check to be returned to us if the bid is not accepted or if we give the required bond within five days after the contract is awarded to us.

We shall expect one-third of the contract price in thirty days from the delivery of the material, one-third in sixty days, and the remainder in ninety days from delivery.

To make this contract binding on our part, we must receive notice of its acceptance not later than Saturday, September 25.

Yours very truly,
Acme Iron Company.

4. United States Army Form of Letter.—In the United States Army there is used a form of letter that has much to recommend it and that is being used to some extent in business. Accompanying is an example of such a letter. Aside from the general arrangement, particular attention is called to the numbered paragraphs for each definite statement or instruction and to the typewritten name and title of the signer immediately under the pen-written signature. In accordance with the instructions in paragraph 3, the reply would be written on the same sheet with no heading except the date.

UNITED STATES ARMY FORM OF LETTER

Scranton, Pa.,
Sept. 13, 1920.

From: J. R. Smith, 827 Winfield St., Scranton, Pa.
To: R. C. Jones, Farm Manager, Moscow, Pa.
Subject: Purchase of second-hand 1½-ton Reo truck.

1. The Economy Auto Co. has a second-hand 1½-ton Reo truck for sale at its garage on Penn Ave., Scranton, Pa. We are in need of another truck for quick trips into the city and for general farm work.

2. Buy this truck, if after careful examination you think it to be in good running condition and the price not too high.

3. Report what action you take on this matter by indorsement hereon.

J. R. Smith
J. R. Smith
Superintendent.

REPORTS

5. Sometimes a letter is used as a means of giving a report on some business matter. This report may include not only specific information, but also suggestions based on this information. Since the reader of such a letter is likely to be a very busy man, the important facts in the report should be clearly brought out and the material should be so arranged that it will be convenient for reference. The report should be arranged in such a way that the divisions of the subject are apparent at a glance. The example that follows shows a good way to secure clearness by arrangement. Note that the report

is separated into divisions, each having a prominently displayed heading. Underlining a heading or putting it in capital letters helps to make it stand out clearly.

93 Main St.
Pittsburgh, Pa.
Aug. 1, 1920

National Real Estate Company
128 Fifth Ave.
New York City

Gentlemen:

In accordance with your instructions, I submit the following report of my work as your special representative in western Pennsylvania for the month of July, 1920.

Sales Concluded.—I have completed the sale of the farm of 90 acres in New Kensington, owned by Charles Foster, to Arthur Dunn, for $2,350 cash. The tenement house property owned by Henry Vaughn, at 236 Owen Street, West Johnstown, has been sold to Ira Bedford for $800 cash.

Soliciting of New Business.—Wherever I go in the course of business I make it my practice to inquire into local real estate conditions, and get in touch with those whom I learn to be interested in buying or selling property. I spend about a quarter of my time in this way, and as a result I now have a prospect file that contains 53 names of persons with whom I hope to conclude sales in the course of the next few months.

Inquiries for Property Outside of My Territory.—The following persons wish to receive, at the earliest possible moment, information in regard to property for sale:

1. Henry Smith, 253 Preston Ave., Pittsburgh, wants to buy a farm with complete equipment, somewhere down South. He is willing to pay not more than $2,300 for a medium sized farm.

2. John Pettus, R. F. D. No. 2, West Johnstown, wants to buy a grocery store, completely stocked and equipped, in some town of 5,000 population in Ohio. He is willing to pay from $8,000 to $10,000.

3. Mrs. Henry Jermyn, 618 Homestead Ave., Pittsburgh, desires to invest about $3,500 in a small summer cottage near a body of water not more than 200 miles from Pittsburgh.

Yours very truly,
Henry T. Snover

EXERCISE III

6. Directions.—Write two of the following letters:

1. Miss Emily Wilson, a dressmaker, wishes to establish a shop in a large city. Write a letter of introduction to a reliable real-estate dealer, asking him to assist her in securing a suitable location.

2. Write to the Victor Typewriter Company of Scranton, Pa., for information concerning the typewriter they manufacture.

3. Write a letter to some firm, acknowledging the receipt of their favorable answer to your application for a situation with them. State that their terms are satisfactory, that you accept the situation, and that you will be present to take up your duties at the time they have named.

FAULTS TO BE AVOIDED

7. There are numerous errors that are likely to creep into business letters if the one who writes them does not know what errors to avoid. The following suggestions will help you to write letters free from the most common errors:

Observe the conventional forms with respect to arrangement, capitalization, and punctuation, and be consistent in these respects.

Have every letter carefully worded, neatly written, and sincere. Remember that extravagance of language is out of place in a business letter and is likely to create an impression of insincerity.

In the body of your letter use no abbreviations that are not in common use or that are in any way vague or ambiguous. Never say *Your acct. is long past due.* Write the word *account* in full. Also avoid excessive use of colloquial contractions as *don't, can't,* etc., for these are usually objectionable in formal business letters. Never use any abbreviations in the close. *Yrs. truly, Yrs. respt.,* etc., are always poor form.

Avoid the omission of adjectives, pronouns, and prepositions. Make certain that every expression you use is gram-

matically complete and correct. Such expressions as *Received order of August 24th,* etc., are incorrect. This should read *I received your order,* etc. Note that in the correct form the pronouns *I* and *your* are expressed.

Do not use the pronoun *I* too frequently in a letter. You may avoid undue repetition of this pronoun by changing the construction of your sentence.

Avoid the use of such worn-out expressions as *Please find enclosed, In reply we would say, Awaiting your further orders,* etc. Review what Art. **34,** Instruction Paper 1920A, gives concerning the use of such stock phrases.

Always write your signature legibly. Much embarrassment and delay may be caused by an illegible signature.

Remember that a letter written by a woman should indicate whether she is married or single. This may be done by enclosing within marks of parenthesis the title *Mrs.* or *Miss,* as *(Mrs.) Mary J. Adams, (Miss) Catherine Wilcox.*

CORRECTING ERRORS

8. Directions.—Determine what is wrong in each part of Exercise IV. Then write the Exercise, giving the correct form in each instance.

EXERCISE IV

No. 520 E. 5th St.
New York City, 9-24-1920

2. Chapman Hillis and Co
316 boulavard ave phila. Pa

Dear Sirs

3. Hoping you will let me know your decision immediately, I remain,
Yrs. truly
mary M. Belnap.

4. Yours of the 15th inst recd. advising return of five damaged chairs. Enclosed herewith find a credit memo to cover price of same.

5. Dear Miss: In reply to your favor of September 15 wish to state that your order was never recd. If you will send a duplicate order shall be pleased to forward the good to you immediately,
Yours Truly, h.m. pierson Co.

BUSINESS FORMS

9. Since business affairs are largely transacted through the medium of bills, checks, receipts, etc., a knowledge of the correct way of writing these forms is essential. The explanations and specimens show how to prepare these forms correctly.

BILLS OR STATEMENTS

10. A bill is a statement of an account of money due. It is a paper setting forth the amount of a debt for goods sold, for services rendered, for work done, etc. It usually shows the date of sale or services, the terms of payment, and the price.

A Statement of Groceries Bought

New York April 3 1920

Mr. Warren E. Smith

Bought of EDWARDS & HASTINGS,

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL GROCERS.

Terms ALL CLAIMS FOR SHORTAGE OR DAMAGE MUST BE MADE ON RECEIPT OF GOODS.

10 lb Sugar	.13	1	30	
2 pkg. Oatmeal	.16		32	
1 bu. Potatoes		2	00	
3 lb. Butter	.75	2	25	5 87

Fig. 1

If for goods sold, it gives the names, quantities, prices, and amounts of the articles. It should be made out in a comprehensive manner, and itemized so that a person of ordinary intelligence can check up the bill and tell exactly what articles and values it represents. Care should be taken to have the writing and figures plain, so that they cannot be misunderstood.

All bills, statements, etc., when paid, should be receipted either with a rubber stamp as shown in Fig. 2 or in neat handwriting on the next or second line below the last item, and not across the face of the bill. In all cases of part payment, only the amount paid should be entered on the bill or statement.

A Receipted Bill

New York Feb. 4 1920

Mr. Warren E. Smith

Bought of EDWARDS & HASTINGS,

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL GROCERS.

Terms ALL CLAIMS FOR SHORTAGE OR DAMAGE MUST BE MADE ON RECEIPT OF GOODS.

	1 bbl Sugar			
	221 lb	12	26 52	
	1 bbl Flour		14 00	
	50 lb Oolong Tea	49	24 50	65 02

PAID
FEB 28 1920
EDWARDS & HASTINGS
Per E. D. H.

Fig. 2

An Itemized Statement for Labor Performed and Material Furnished

SCRANTON, PA., April 12, 1920

Mr. Aaron B. Smith,

TO WILLIAMS & HARDER, DR.

PLUMBERS AND TINNERS

Feb 20	To 6 Joints Stove Pipe,	@ .40	$ 2	40		
	" 2 Elbows " "	" .65	1	30		
Mar 3	" 22' Gutter Spouting, 3",	" .30	6	60		
	" 16' Corrugated " 4",	" .40	6	40		
	" 7 hrs Labor, Journeyman,	" 1.20	8	40		
	" 12 " " Helper,	" .60	7	20		
					$ 32	30
	Cr.					
Mar 10	By Cash on Account,				17	00
	Balance Due,				$ 15	30

Fig. 3

RECEIPTS

11. A receipt is a written acknowledgment of having received a specified value, with the date, source of value, signa-

FORM FOR A RECEIPT FOR RENT

$28.00 Hanover, S. C., Apr. 5, 1920.

Received of Chas. M. Norris,

Twenty-eight and 00/100 Dollars,

in full payment for rent of my house

No. 46 Salem St., for month ending Apr. 30, 1920.

Mrs. A. S. Koons.

FIG. 4

ture of the person who received the value, and such other particulars as may be necessary to make it plain and unquestion-

FORM FOR RECEIPT ON ACCOUNT

$46.00 York, Pa., May 12, 1920.

Received of R. D. Hess,

Forty-six and 00/100 Dollars,

to apply on his account.

William K. Rice.

FIG. 5

able. Common forms of receipts are shown in Figs. 4, 5, and 6. A receipt of some description should be taken whenever

a payment is made. All receipts should be carefully preserved, as they save disputes, money, trouble, and frequently a law-

FORM FOR A RECEIPT IN FULL

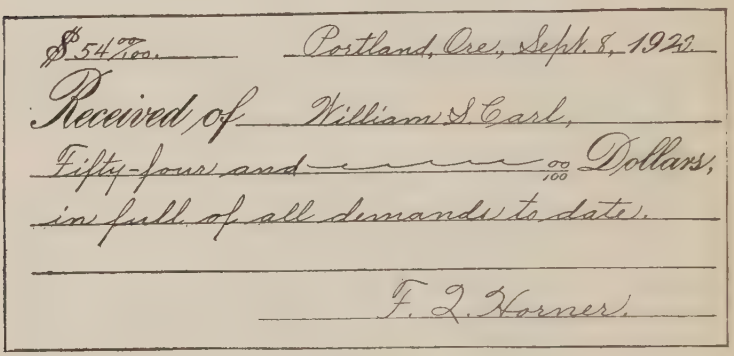

$54 $^{00}_{100}$ Portland, Ore., Sept. 8, 1922
Received of William S. Earl,
Fifty-four and $^{00}_{100}$ Dollars,
in full of all demands to date.
F. L. Horner.

FIG. 6

suit. A receipt should be so made out that its meaning shall be clearly understood.

EXERCISE V

12. Directions.—1. Make an itemized statement of groceries bought by Mr. Samuel K. Snowden from Messrs. Ball and Bush. Let this statement show the dates of the purchases, and the quantity, price, and total cost of each article of about one dozen different kinds of groceries, the total amount, a credit for payment of cash on account, and the balance yet due.

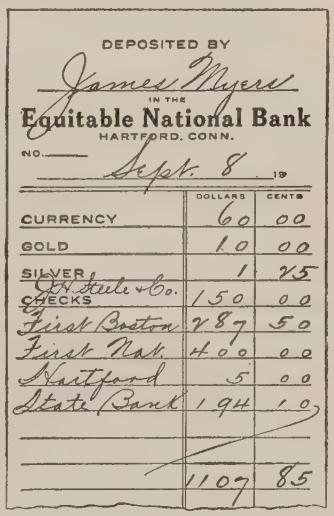
2. Write a letter from Messrs. Ball and Bush to Mr. Snowden acknowledging the receipt of his check in full of account, including the date of the last purchase named in the statement. Speak of enclosing a receipt.

3. Write the receipt that Messrs. Ball and Bush send to Mr. Snowden.

FORMS USED BY BANKS

13. Deposit Slip.—A deposit slip, or deposit ticket, is a printed form furnished by the banks, so that each depositor may fill out and present, with his pass book, a statement of the different items for deposit, such as currency, gold, silver, checks, etc. If the banker finds the items correct in all respects, he will place their sum to the depositor's credit in his pass book and on the books of the bank. Whenever a deposit of currency (paper money), gold, silver, or checks is to be made, the deposit slip is filled out as shown in Fig. 7.

DEPOSIT SLIP


DEPOSITED BY
James Myers
IN THE
Equitable National Bank
HARTFORD, CONN.
NO. —— Sept. 8 19

	DOLLARS	CENTS
CURRENCY	60	00
GOLD	10	00
SILVER	1	25
CHECKS G. Fuller & Co.	150	00
First Boston	787	50
First Nat.	400	00
Hartford	5	00
State Bank	194	10
	1107	85

FIG. 7

14. Signature Card. When an account is first opened at a bank, the depositor will be asked to sign a **Signature Book,** or **Card,** as shown in Fig. 8. This book or card is

SIGNATURE CARD

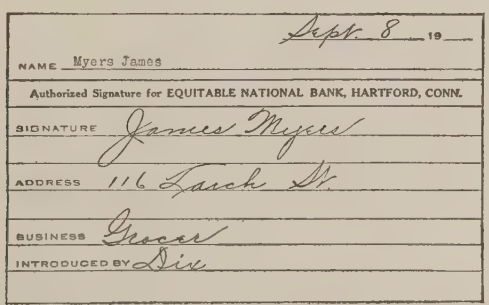

Sept. 8 19
NAME Myers James
Authorized Signature for EQUITABLE NATIONAL BANK, HARTFORD, CONN.
SIGNATURE James Myers
ADDRESS 116 Lynch St.
BUSINESS Grocer
INTRODUCED BY Div

FIG. 8

used by the bank to keep a record of the address and signature of each of its depositors. In signing, the depositor writes his

full name, his address, and his signature as he habitually writes it. The style of signature should never be changed, and all business papers should be signed exactly as the signature is written in the signature book or on the card.

15. Pass Book.—On opening an account with a bank, the depositor receives a pass book. This book should be presented at the bank whenever a deposit is to be made, and in it the receiving teller enters the amount of each deposit, the book

Specimen Pages from a Pass Book

Dr. Equitable National Bank, in account with James Myers Cr.

1910											
Sept.	8		1	107	85		Checks rtd	1	549	50	
	10			765	50						
	11			98	70						
	15			427	50		Balance		289	55	
			1	839	05			1	839	05	
Sept.	16	Balance		289	55						

Fig. 9

thus serving as a receipt for money deposited. Fig. 9 illustrates two pages of one form of pass book. This shows the amounts of deposits made on September 8, 10, 11, and 15; also that checks totaling $1,549.50 have been paid by the bank, and that there is a balance of $289.55 in the bank on September 16.

The pass book should be left at the bank at frequent intervals to be balanced. In case of an ordinary business account, the checks that have been paid by the bank are added on a slip of paper by use of an adding machine, and the total is entered

as *checks returned* as shown in Fig. 9. These canceled checks, with the slip and the balanced book, are returned to the depositor.

In some savings banks, ordinary checks are not drawn against the account, but the book is presented when money is withdrawn and an entry showing the amount of the withdrawal is made on the credit side of the account.

16. Checks.—After a deposit has been made and the amount entered to the credit of the customer in his pass book, the bank will then give him a check-book. This is a book of blank **checks** and is usually furnished free of charge by the banks. These blanks are so worded that, when they are properly filled out, they become orders on the bank named, payable, on demand and without interest, to the person named, or to his order, or to the bearer.

When it is desired to draw money from the bank, one of these checks is filled out with the date, the name of the person to whom the money is to be paid, and the amount. The check should be signed exactly like the signature card. A full description of the check is then made on the *check-stub,* and the check torn off for use.

The correct form of a check is shown in Fig. 10, which has a stub attached and filled in. The amount of the check, both

CORRECTLY WRITTEN CHECK

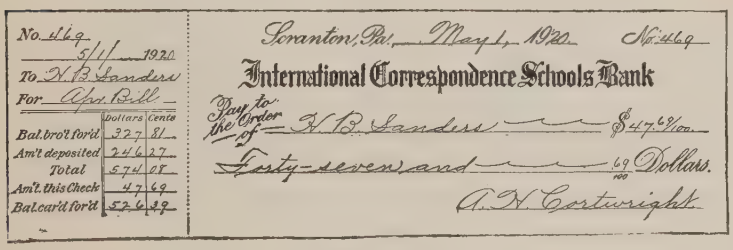

No. 469
5/1 1920
To H. B. Sanders
For Adv. Bill
Dollars Cents
Bal. bro't for'd 327 81
Am't deposited 246 27
Total 574 08
Am't this Check 47 69
Bal. carr'd for'd 526 39
Scranton, Pa. May 1, 1920 No. 469
International Correspondence Schools Bank
Pay to the Order of H. B. Sanders $47.69/100
Forty-seven and 69/100 Dollars.
A. N. Cartwright

FIG. 10

the words and the figures, should be written close to the left of the space allowed for it, or some other person may "raise" the check (that is, increase its amount) for more than it is written.

The incorrect form of a check, Fig. 11, shows carelessness on the part of the person who made it out. The figures should

INCORRECT FORM OF CHECK

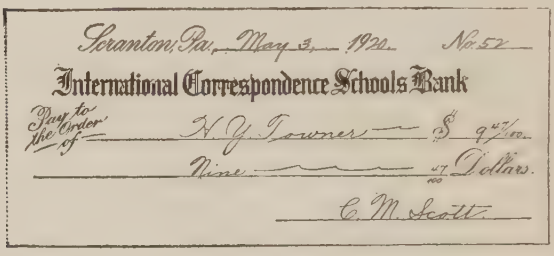

Scranton, Pa., May 3, 1920 No. 52
International Correspondence Schools Bank
Pay to the Order of H. J. Towner $ 9 77/100
Nine 77/100 Dollars.
C. M. Scott

FIG. 11

be written close to the dollar sign and the word *Nine* should begin at the left-hand margin of the check. This check could

RAISED CHECK

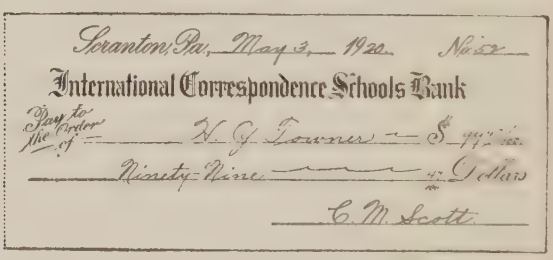

Scranton, Pa., May 3, 1920 No. 52
International Correspondence Schools Bank
Pay to the Order of H. J. Towner $ 99 77/100
Ninety-Nine 77/100 Dollars
C. M. Scott

FIG. 12

easily be made to call for ninety-nine dollars, as shown in Fig. 12.

17. Indorsements.—Checks, notes, and drafts are generally made payable to the order of the person receiving them and must be indorsed before they can be deposited or transferred.

The forms of indorsement in most common use are shown in Fig. 13.

The name only, as shown on the back of the first check, is a blank indorsement. Paper so indorsed by the person in whose favor it is drawn becomes payable to the bearer.

Paper indorsed *Pay to* will be paid only to the person named and cannot be transferred by him, but must be deposited to his account or collected in person.

INDORSEMENTS

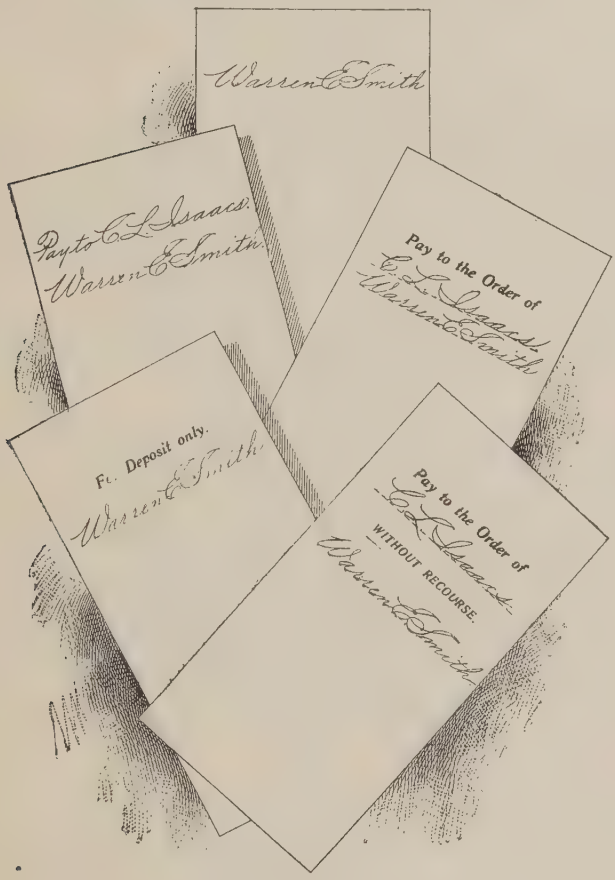


FIG. 13

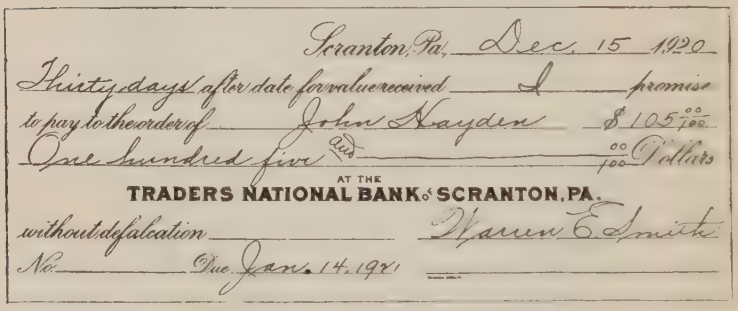
The indorsement *Pay to the order of* allows a further transfer of the paper by the indorsement of the person named, and thus forms an indirect receipt showing that such a person received the paper.

For deposit only is the proper form of indorsement when papers are sent for deposit by mail or messenger, for they cannot then be put to any other use. Frequently, the name of the bank in which they are to be deposited is given, as *For deposit only in the International Correspondence Schools Bank, of Scranton, Pa.* Indorsements of this kind are generally made with a rubber stamp, the signature being included in the stamped indorsement.

The indorsement *Pay to the order of* a person *without recourse* releases the indorser from liability in case the paper is not paid. It is seldom used, however, because except in a very few cases, the holder of a paper must indorse it and assume the liability for his indorsement, or he cannot find any one to whom he can turn over the paper except for collection.

18. Promissory Note.—A promissory note is an absolute promise in writing to pay on a certain date, or on demand.

PROMISSORY NOTE


Scranton, Pa., Dec. 15 1920

Thirty days after date for value received I promise

to pay to the order of John Hayden $105.00/100

One hundred five and 00/100 Dollars

AT THE

TRADERS NATIONAL BANK OF SCRANTON, PA.

without defalcation Warren E. Smith

No. Due Jan. 14, 1921

FIG. 14

a specified sum of money to a person named therein, or to his order, or to the bearer, and signed by the maker. Fig. 14 shows a form of this note.

EXERCISE VI

19. Directions.—1. Make a bill from a plumber to yourself for putting a sink in the kitchen. Let his itemized bill name cost of the sink, two faucets, lead pipe, and labor.

2. Write a promissory note that you might give to the plumber for the amount of his bill.

3. Write a check that might easily be raised and then write the same check correctly.

4. Write a check that you would take to the bank to draw money for your own use.

TELEGRAMS AND CABLEGRAMS

20. Telegrams.—Telegrams must be written on printed blanks that are furnished free at telegraph offices. The cost of sending messages is based, partly, on the number of words they contain. Hence, a telegram should be as brief as possible and yet be clear. No charge is made for the address nor for

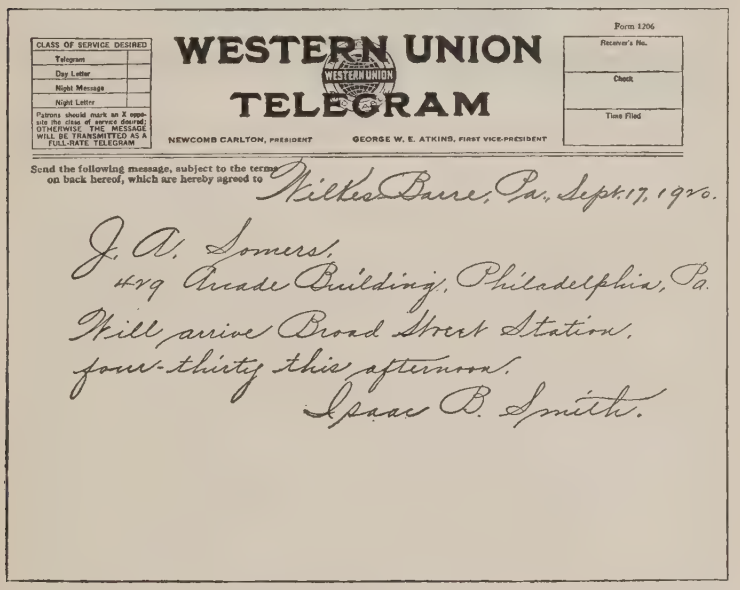

CLASS OF SERVICE DESIRED
Telegram
Day Letter
Night Message
Night Letter
Patrons should mark an X opposite the class of service desired; OTHERWISE THE MESSAGE WILL BE TRANSMITTED AS A FULL-RATE TELEGRAM
WESTERN UNION
TELEGRAM
NEWCOMB CARLTON, PRESIDENT
GEORGE W. E. ATKINS, FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT
Form 1206
Receiver's No.
Check
Time Filed
Send the following message, subject to the terms on back hereof, which are hereby agreed to
Wilkes Barre, Pa. Sept. 17, 1920.
J. A. Somers,
429 Arcade Building, Philadelphia, Pa.
Will arrive Broad Street Station,
four-thirty this afternoon.
Isaac B. Smith.

Fig. 15

the signature. The salutation, the complimentary close, and all titles are omitted. The charge for sending a message must be prepaid or guaranteed, and is a certain price, according to the distance, for the first ten words or less and an extra charge for every additional word. Each figure in the body of a tele-

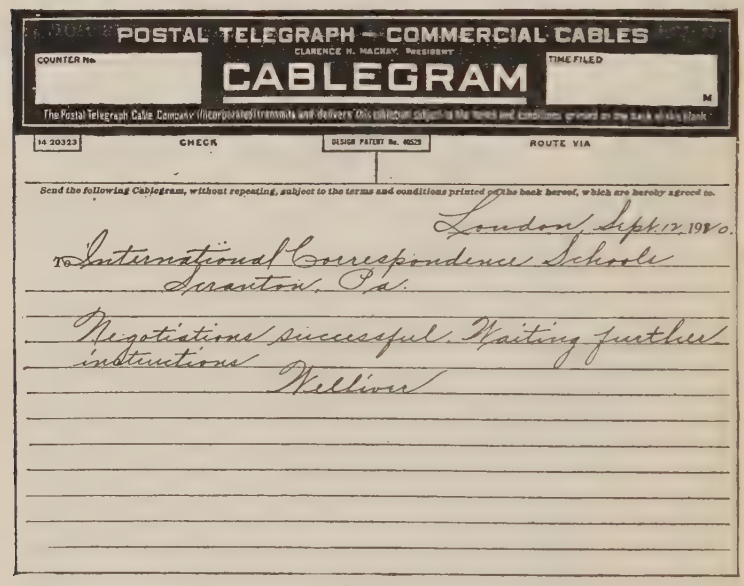
gram is counted as a word. For instance, *seventeen* is charged as one word, but, if written *17*, it is charged as two words. Fig. 15 illustrates the usual form of a telegram.

There are four classes of telegraphic service, as follows:

1. *Fast day telegrams,* or full-rate expedited service, by which messages are sent and delivered at the earliest possible time.

2. *Night messages,* accepted up to 2 A. M., to be delivered not earlier than the morning of the ensuing day, at special reduced rates.

3. *Day letters,* to be sent and delivered during the day at the company's convenience. The rate for 50 words or less is


POSTAL TELEGRAPH — COMMERCIAL CABLES

CLARENCE H. MACKAY, PRESIDENT

COUNTER No.

CABLEGRAM

TIME FILED

M

The Postal Telegraph Cable Company (Incorporated) transmits and delivers this telegram subject to the terms and conditions printed on the back of this Blank

14 20323 CHECK DESIGN PATENT No. 46529 ROUTE VIA

Send the following Cablegram, without repeating, subject to the terms and conditions printed on the back hereof, which are hereby agreed to.

London, Sept 12, 1910.

To International Correspondence Schools
Scranton, Pa.

Negotiations successful. Waiting further instructions

Wellman

Fig. 16

one and one-half times the rate for a standard day message, with one-fifth additional for each ten words above fifty.

4. *Night letters,* or lettergrams, accepted up to midnight in some cases or 2 A. M. in others, to be delivered on the morning of the ensuing day. Rate for fifty words the same as for a standard day telegram, with one-fifth additional for each ten words above fifty.

Telegrams in classes 1 and 2 may be in plain English, in code or in cipher; those in classes 3 and 4 must be in plain English. In all classes except class 1, the companies make certain reservations as to time and manner of delivery. Particulars concerning these points can be obtained at any telegraph office.

21. Cablegrams.—Cablegrams must be written on, or pasted to, the regular blanks furnished by the cable company before they will be accepted for transmission. They may contain any number of words from two upwards. They may be written in plain language, in code, or in cipher, and, except for the name of the office of origin, every word is charged for, including address and signature, and each numeral is counted as a word. Fig. 16 shows the form of a cablegram written in full.

Since the rate per word for cablegrams is often quite high, many devices are used to avoid expense; some of these are as follows:

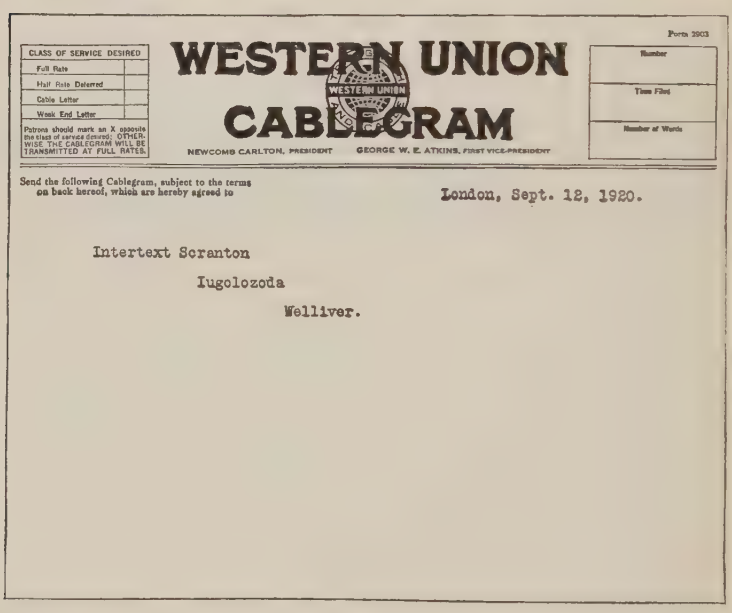
1. When the nature of the message is such as to identify the sender, the signature is often omitted; sometimes the cablegram consists of the address with no text or signature, agreement having been made beforehand as to the meaning that shall be given to such a message.

2. Very extensive codes are published, in which a single word is made to convey the meaning of one or more sentences or a whole idea. For example, according to the Western Union Code, which may be used on any lines to all parts of the world, the body of the message shown in Fig. 16 would be expressed in the single word, *Iugolozoda.*

Code words must not exceed ten letters in length and they may be taken from any of the following languages: English, French, German, Italian, Dutch, Portuguese, Spanish or Latin. Code words may also be made up of combinations of letters not exceeding ten in number that are pronounceable according to the usage of any of the above-mentioned languages. Combinations of letters that are not pronounceable are treated as letter cipher and counted as five letters to the word.

Any word conforming to the foregoing conditions may be used as a code word by agreement between the sender and the receiver, but the published codes have the advantage that they conform to all the rules of the cable companies, thus insuring the lowest rates; and as access can be had to the principal published codes in almost any part of the world, messages can be translated, or decoded, without previous arrangement.

3. As an additional means of saving cable tolls, firms that have frequent need to send and receive cablegrams register



Form 2903

CLASS OF SERVICE DESIRED

Full Rate
Half Rate Deferred
Cable Letter
Week End Letter

Patrons should mark an X opposite the class of service desired; OTHERWISE THE CABLEGRAM WILL BE TRANSMITTED AT FULL RATES.

WESTERN UNION

WESTERN UNION

CABLEGRAM

NEWCOMB CARLTON, PRESIDENT GEORGE W. E. ATKINS, FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT

Number
Time Filed
Number of Words

Send the following Cablegram, subject to the terms on back hereof, which are hereby agreed to

London, Sept. 12, 1920.

Intertext Scranton

Iugolozoda

Welliver.

Fig. 17

with the telegraph company a cable address consisting usually of one word, though in some cases two words are necessary. For example, the cable address of the International Correspondence Schools, Scranton, Pa., U. S.A., is *Intertext, Scranton,* a saving of six words. Registered cable addresses are published in a directory, or register, that is circulated among business men in all parts of the world. Fig. 17 shows the message of Fig. 16 written by use of a registered cable address and the Western Union Code.

22. If secrecy is important, cablegrams or telegrams are sent in cipher language, in which letters, figures, or words are given different values or meanings from the usual or code meanings. In times of national difficulty, all messages are subject to government restrictions or censorship and cipher messages are often prohibited.

Many cable companies have special reduced rates for certain classes of deferred messages similar in some respects to the night messages or night letters described under the head of Telegrams. Particulars regarding such can be obtained at cable and telegraph offices.

EXERCISE VII

23. Directions.—1. Write a telegram to a friend announcing the death and time of the funeral of a relative.

2. Condense the following into a telegram of the fewest words consistent with clearness:

I have succeeded in effecting a satisfactory settlement with the Consolidated Coal and Coke Co., and I shall leave for New York City tonight. I shall see you at the Belmont Hotel on Saturday morning.

SOCIAL CORRESPONDENCE

FRIENDSHIP LETTERS

24. Social letters are of many kinds, ranging from those written by one friend to another to the formal wedding or dinner invitation. The friendship letter, the kind the average person is called upon to write most frequently, is the one that will be treated here.

25. Mechanical Details.—As in a business letter, the address of the writer and the date are generally placed at the beginning, in the upper right-hand corner. Sometimes they are written at the end of the letter, in the lower left-hand corner. In a short letter to an intimate friend living in the same place the local address is sufficient. The address of the recip-

ient is not as a rule included. If it is given, it is placed at the end of the letter in the lower left-hand corner. The kind of salutation that is proper to use depends upon the intimacy of the relations between the writer and the reader. A close friend may be addressed by the first name, as *Dear George,* or *Dear Mary.* A comparative stranger would be addressed as *My dear Miss Johnson,* or, if a less formal address is preferred, as *Dear Miss Johnson.* At the close, forms like *Sincerely yours, Yours cordially,* and similar expressions are in good taste. In letters to intimate friends or relatives, endings like *Affectionately yours, Yours with much love,* etc., are proper. There is opportunity here for originality, always provided that the ending is consistent with the rest of the letter.

26. Style.—The charm of a friendly letter depends largely upon the naturalness with which it is written, for in a letter of this kind one is really visiting by mail, and the letter should give the feeling of a friendly visit. This quality of naturalness may be obtained by writing as though you were talking, by saying to your friend what you would say to him were he at your side. Express yourself freely, informally, and spontaneously, aiming constantly to give pleasure to the one to whom you are writing.

In writing a friendly letter, think of yourself as in the place of the reader. Take into consideration his interests and his tastes. Write about things in which he is interested, giving little every-day details that you would naturally bring up in conversation. Tell amusing or exciting incidents that interest you, for what interests you will, in all probability, interest your correspondent.

You should, however, attempt to write your letters in language that is grammatical, clear, and forcible. If you are describing something, arrange the points of your description in such a way as to make what you say not only interesting but impressive and clear. Your ideas should be given in logical order, and the thought expressed in one sentence or paragraph should lead naturally to what is given in the next sentence or paragraph. Practice will be of great help, and if you remember

that language may be an instrument both of use and of pleasure, you may get much enjoyment out of your practice and may learn to express yourself effectively and entertainingly.

SPECIMEN FRIENDLY LETTERS

27. Following are several specimen letters of friendship. Read these carefully. Then practice the writing of friendly letters, endeavoring to make them interesting. Facility of expression will come through practice, so that the more you practice the better letter will you learn to write.

Silverton, Colo.,
June 10, 1920.

Dear Mary:

My recent trip to Estes Park was a delightful one, and the four days spent on horseback, traveling over the mountain roads, will be a pleasant memory for years to come.

You would have been amused at our appearance had you seen us when we started from home in the early morning. My companion, Miss Sheldon, owns a real Western broncho, and he was packed until very little of the animal was visible. My pony is a true aristocrat and objected somewhat to being made into a pack animal, but finally submitted with good grace and soon became reconciled to the task of carrying provisions, camp equipment, blankets, and various other necessaries.

We decided to go by way of Sunshine Cañon, as the road is less frequented. Soon the grade became so steep that we dismounted and led the horses, for we thought it was too much for them to carry us also. At Sunshine we mailed postal cards, rested a little, and watered the horses; then leaving the town we toiled up the steepest grade it has ever been my misfortune to climb. It seemed an interminable distance to the top, and then, to our surprise, the road pitched downwards again and we carefully made our way to the bottom of the gulch.

All day we rode or walked, stopping only for lunch and rest, or to pick strawberries and take pictures, for, of course, the outfit included a kodak. Each night of the trip we were so fortunate as to secure a good, comfortable place to sleep, for you know the mountain people are very hospitable. One night we spent at the Burns Will Hotel in Allen's Park, and found every one whom we met very pleasant and friendly.

We reached home with our loads greatly lightened; and, while we were rather tired and as brown as Indians, we had such a delightful

time that we are anxious to repeat it some time in the future. Try to go with us.

Your sincere friend,
Esther.

Dallas, Pa.
Oct. 16, 1920

Dear George:

That interesting letter you sent me several weeks ago deserved a prompt response. I fully intended to write you a long, newsy letter last Sunday afternoon, but just as I was about to start, callers came, and we found so much to talk about that they didn't leave until I had to get ready for church. This time I hope nothing will happen to interrupt me, for I want to prove myself a prompt as well as a faithful correspondent.

My time the last two months has been very busily and profitably spent in sightseeing and in renewing old associations. As you know, this is the first time in over ten years that I have been back to the old home town, so I was naturally very much interested to note the many beautiful new buildings that have been added to the business section, and to learn from the old friends I met on every hand, how the world had been using them.

Do you remember the ramshackle old building where the post office used to be? That has been replaced by a four-story modern structure, in which are located a restaurant, a cozy little theater, and several office suites. The post office has new quarters in another building erected about three years ago, at the corner of Main Street and Third Avenue, where the old Gardner homestead used to be. The Bon Ton Department Store outgrew its old building some time ago, and now occupies a big three-story building about a block from its old location. These are the principal changes in the business section. The residential part of the old town has been very much enlarged, and a number of delightful avenues have been laid out over on the South Side. The old ball grounds are no more: their site is now occupied by cozy little cottages, owned for the most part by the railroad men brought here by the opening of the new shops about five years ago.

These details will interest you, I know, for you have been out of touch with Dallas longer than I have. But even more interesting are the changes in the people we both used to know. Doctor Magee, that venerable old patriarch, who dispensed pills and plasters to all the ailing ones for miles around, died six years ago, and his patients are now taken care of by his eldest son Rob, whom you no doubt remember as the crack full-back of the high-school football team a dozen years back. Pete Filkins, the undertaker, has retired from business, and spends most of his leisure on his farm, though he is as actively inter-

ested as ever in running the affairs of the school board. What would our school board seem like without him, with his fatherly advice to the graduates every year?

"Prof." Tooker, the high-school principal, still holds forth on Academy Hill, as stern and dignified as of yore, but white-haired now, and somewhat bent with age. Abe Walker, the town policeman, is now chief of police, with two brawny assistants. The town is just as sleepy and law-abiding as it was in our time, so the police force is not overworked.

I would like to continue this reminiscent chat and tell you of other changes I have noted, but I am called to dinner, so I must pause for a while. I promise you faithfully that I shall write again soon, for I know that I have much local history to tell you that will interest you exceedingly.

Sincerely yours,
Henry Harvey

Boulder, Colo.,
Dec. 20, 1920.

Dear Helen:

You asked me to describe the Silver Lake country to you. This region is really unsurpassed in beauty and grandeur. There are no adjectives adequate to describe the wonderful views, the trees and flowers, and the lakes and streams.

The timber is, of course, pine and spruce principally—magnificent trees that reach far up into the deep blue sky. The foliage is exceedingly dense, since the region is visited daily with heavy showers that force the vegetation to its utmost growth.

There is a chain of lakes, the first of which is Silver Lake, the reservoir into which the water for Boulder's supply is drained. Above this is beautiful Island Lake, a charming sheet of water with many bays and indentations, and filled with small islands which are covered with trees and flowers. Still higher is Grand Lake, and here is the dam over which flows the water from Arapahoe Glacier. Although the day on which we visited this spot was unusually warm, we stood on the shore of this lake and shivered in the icy wind which swept down the lake, blown directly from the glacier. Grand Lake is almost at timber line and is so exposed that the water is nearly always rough, and since the wind is so cold, it is not a comfortable place in which to remain for very long.

From this point the glacier is in plain sight, about four miles away. We could see the crevices in the ice and thought we could discern the point at which adventurous climbers ascend. This glacier is truly an inspiring sight. It is an immense white wall covering the entire side of

Arapahoe Peak, calmly holding its place through the ages and sending a never-ceasing supply of clear, cold water down to the lakes below.

We did not remain here many minutes, for the wind chilled us through and the water broke against the dam, dashing the cold spray over us. Still farther up we found Twin Lakes not so large, but lovely and wild in their primitive state. It is somewhat of a surprise to find such lakes so far up in the highest ranges; but these sheets of water are wonderfully beautiful, reflecting the mountain peaks in their clear depths, and where the trees grow to the edge of the water it is sometimes impossible to distinguish the real trees from the shadowy reflection.

I shall not try to describe the great beauty of this country to you, for as the picture passes through my mind I realize the impossibility of recording on paper the many details that go to make up a wonderful landscape. I can only invite you to come to see it for yourself and carry away with you the never-to-be-forgotten impression of the most beautiful country in the United States.

Sincerely your friend,
Dorothy.

EXERCISE VIII

28. Directions.—Write one of the following letters:

(1) You have been spending your vacation with a friend in another state. Write to a friend at home and tell of your experiences and of the interesting things you have seen.

(2) Write an account of a trip to the seashore.

(3) Suppose that you are traveling by train or by motor through a country that is new to you. Write to your brother about the scenes through which you are passing.

LETTERS OF THANKS

29. Promptness is very desirable in letters of thanks acknowledging gifts received or favors rendered. Such letters need not be very long, but they should be sincere, and their language should be in keeping with the value of the service or gift. Put yourself in the place of the person to whom the letter of thanks is addressed, and write such an acknowledgment as would please you under the circumstances, and you will doubtless write a suitable letter.

The following specimen letters of thanks serve to illustrate the general tone of such letters:

Acknowledging a Wedding Gift

Oakwood,
Jan. 6, 1921.

My dear Mrs. Borner,

With your usual good judgment, you have given us just the wedding gift that was needed to add a homey touch to our library. Henry and I are both very enthusiastic in agreeing that the library lamp, which you so thoughtfully selected, could not suit us better if we had picked it out ourselves. It lights the room amply, and blends perfectly with the rest of the furniture.

Henry adds his hearty thanks to mine, and hopes that very soon you will be able to come to see us in our new home.

Always sincerely yours,
Mabel Dutton Clarke.

Acknowledging a Favor Received

232 Spruce Avenue
Sept. 6, 1920

Dear Mr. Judson,

The few words you spoke to Mr. Hall in my behalf were so convincing that I have received from him this morning an offer of a position that appeals to me very strongly, and I have accepted it. It was an easy thing for you to do, but it meant much to me, and I assure you that I am most grateful. I shall endeavor to prove myself worthy of your faith in my ability.

Gratefully yours,
George Thompson

Acknowledging a Small Gift

16 Home Street,
June 10, 1920.

My dear Mrs. Myers,

The book you so thoughtfully sent me on my birthday will give me many pleasant hours. It was most kind of you to remember me, and I thank you heartily.

Affectionately yours,
Eleanor Dana.

LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE

30. A letter of condolence is one that offers sympathy to a person who has suffered the loss by death of some one near and dear. Good taste demands that such a letter should be sent as soon as news of the death has been received, should be brief, and should contain no mention of affairs not connected with the event to which it refers. It should include a sincere expression of sympathy, worded as simply and concisely as possible, combined with such reference to the good qualities of the deceased, and to the Divine Comforter as will be fitting.

LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE

Pittsburgh, Pa.,
Jan. 13, 1921.

My dear Charles:

Your letter telling me of the death of your father came this morning, and in this hour of your great affliction, I hasten to offer you my deepest and most heartfelt sympathy. To me the news was indeed a blow, for my intimate association with your father during the past twenty years led me to appreciate the unusual qualities he possessed.

I know how close and affectionate were your relations with your father, and I realize how deeply you must feel your loss. The fact that you never caused him an unhappy moment must at the present sad hour be a consolation to you.

Your sincere friend,
Alfred Webb.

Cleveland, Ohio
November 21, 1920

Dear Marjorie:

When I read your letter this morning and realized that your mother had left you I could not help but feel that though you have suffered a great loss you have also been most fortunate in having her so long. And what a noble life has been hers! I shall always feel better for having known her, for she taught me, as well as all others with whom she came in contact, that the real joy of living comes only to those who serve. "Well done, thou good and faithful servant," has surely welcomed her into the land beyond.

We all know that, at a time like this, mere words are inadequate, but my thoughts and love are with you.

Sincerely yours,
Louise

The following is a letter received from Admiral Dewey by Mrs. Noss, of Mt. Pleasant, whose husband, Jesse Noss, was killed in the battle of Malate, July 31, 1898:

Manila,
Oct. 23, 1898.

My dear Mrs. Noss:

I wish to express to you my deepest sympathy. It must lessen your sorrow somewhat to know that your young husband fell fighting bravely for his country, the noblest death a man can know. From the Olympia, I watched the fight that fearful night and wondered how many American homes would be saddened by the martyrdom suffered by our brave men, and my sympathy went out to each and every one of them.

Your loss has been sadder than the others and I am unable to express the sorrow I feel. Tears came to my eyes as I read the sad story of the father who never saw his child and then the loss of all that was left to the brave mother. It is hard sometimes to believe, but our Heavenly Father, in His infinite goodness, always does things best and some day father, mother, and daughter will be joined never again to be parted.

With tenderest sympathy, believe me, your sincere friend,

George Dewey.

The following letter written to Mrs. Bixby, of Boston, Mass., is one of the best-known letters of condolence:

Washington, D. C.,
November 21, 1864

Dear Madam:

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant-General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any words of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save.

I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours very sincerely and respectfully,

Abraham Lincoln.

Where the bereaved person is only an acquaintance, it may often be necessary to send merely a visiting card with some brief phrase of condolence written on it; as, *sincere sympathy* or *heartfelt sympathy.*

LETTERS OF CONGRATULATION

31. A letter of congratulation is written to express gratification at some good fortune that has come to a friend. The style should be hearty and joyous, but overdrawn compliments and extravagant expressions of joy should be avoided, for these will give the letter a tone of artificiality and insincerity.

Strive to adapt the tone of the letter to the circumstances. A letter to a friend who has won some unusual or exalted honor would naturally be more dignified than a letter written with reference to the winning of some minor success. Familiarity that would be suitable in writing to a close friend would be entirely out of place in addressing a mere acquaintance.

A good way to plan a letter of congratulation is to announce the event that calls forth your congratulations, then express such compliments as may be fitting, and conclude by expressing good wishes. Each of these three parts may be included in a separate paragraph. It should be remembered that letters of this sort should not be long. Sometimes a single paragraph will suffice.

SPECIMEN LETTERS OF CONGRATULATION

201 Stevens Street,
June 6, 1920.

Dear Mary:

The announcement of your engagement to James Slayton was not unexpected by me. In fact, I had been looking forward to it for some time. I felt quite sure that you and he were so congenial that the wedding bells would ring for you two in due time. So I am truly glad to learn the good news, and I send you my most hearty congratulations.

You are lucky to win the affection of such a sturdy promising fellow, and he is fortunate to face the future with such a cheery, lovable lass as I know you to be.

My good wishes to you both! May you live long and happily!

Cordially yours,
Rebecca Riggs.

Denver, Colo.,
June 14, 1920.

Dear Mr. Morgan:

Your election as President of the Board of Education causes me a great deal of pleasure, and I hasten to offer my congratulations.

Your broad education and the experience you have had since leaving college, as a teacher and a business executive, constitute a splendid equipment for the duties of your office, and I feel confident that you will not disappoint the expectations of your many friends, and will meet your responsibilities in a most satisfactory way.

Accept my sincere best wishes for your success.

Cordially yours,
William S. Crossman.

EXERCISE IX

32. Directions.—1. Send a note of sympathy to a friend who has just lost a relative by death.

2. Write a letter congratulating a friend on his recovery from a serious illness.

CORRECTING ERRORS IN A LETTER

33. Directions.—The letter in Exercise X contains a number of errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, arrangement, language, etc. Determine what is incorrect. Then write this letter as you think it should be written.

EXERCISE X

july 20th, 1920,
Collonial hotel
burlington Vt

dere John:

i must tell you of our trip to the white mountains early last Wed. morning six of us left Lake winnepausaukee by automobil for the White mountains, seventy miles away. The larger part of the ride were through a mountainous region, thinly populated, with small towns and hamlets hear and their.

the rode run through notches and passes with the mountain ranges looming up to the right and left of us, there lofty peaks a thousend feet or more above our heds. the mountains is covered with heavy timber pine spruce and hemlock, with occasional large bear

patches of flat rock—due to glacial movements, the natives told us. Jest befor reaching bretton Woods, we come to the Old Man of the Mountains, the naturel wonder which lots travle miles to see It is a stone image of a mans head, juting out from near the top of a huge peek and such a good resemblance, that it seams like it must of been did by human hands. the outlines of chin mouth nose and forhed is almost perfeck, and when the son shines full upon it, you kin easily imagine that the Old Man is smilin down upon you. It is claimed that the distence betwen the chin and the top of the forehead is fourty feet, but the whole are so far above you it don't appere much larger then a human hed. When we first seen it, the clouds was restin lightly upon the forehed but they gradually lifted until the whole hed could be seen distinct. The affect in the sunlight is most startling, and one is not apt to soon forgit it.

Not fur from hear, we come to Mount Washington the highest peak in the range, with an altitude of near 7,000 ft. so I understand. The berkshire Hills are magnificient, I grant you, but not as grandly nor impressively as the White Mountains. You simply look at Mount Washington and wander. we haven't nothing like them in our state.

After a most splendid lunch at the Mount Washington Hotel, we left for Manchester, Vermont, on our way home. i wish you could of been with us.

Sincerly yrs.

Chas.

Mail your work on all the Exercises of this lesson as soon as you have finished preparing them and have looked over your work carefully.

INDEX

NOTE.—In this volume, each Section is complete in itself and has a number. This number is printed at the top of every page of the Section in the headline opposite the page number and to distinguish the Section number from the page number, the Section number is preceded by a section mark (§). In order to find a reference, glance along the inside edges of the headlines until the desired section number is found, then along the page numbers of that Section until the desired page is found. Thus, to find the reference "Accent, Definition of, §2, p10," turn to the Section marked §2, then to page 10 of that Section.

A

Abbreviations, Advantages of, §8, p16
and signs, Business, §8, p18
and signs, List of, §8, p17
Definition of, §8, p16
Miscellaneous, §8, p21
Proper use of, §8, p16
relating to civil and legal affairs, §8, p20
relating to the United States, §8, p17
relating to time, §8, p21
Accent, Definition of, §2, p10
Primary, §2, p10
Secondary, §2, p10
Adding words to your vocabulary, §9, p13
Address of letter, §1, p22
Adjective, Adjunctive use of, §13, p2
Position of the, §13, p2
Predicate, §13, p2
The, §10, p18
used appositively, §13, p2
Adjectives and adverbs, Confusion of, §13, p10
and adverbs, Correcting errors in the use of, §13, p12
and adverbs frequently misused, §13, p13
and adverbs, Improper forms of, §13, p22
and adverbs, Improper use of, §13, p10
and adverbs, Selecting, §13, p5
and adverbs, Similarity of, §13, p4
Singular and plural, §13, p9
Adverb, The, §10, p19
Adverbs and adjectives, Comparisons of, §13, p5
frequently misused, §10, p25
signify, What, §13, p3
Agreement of subject and predicate, §5, p6
Antonyms, Definition of, §9, p19
Application for a clerkship, §1, p16
Army form of letter, United States, §15, p11
Arrangement of the letter, §1, p13

B

Block style of letter, §1, p31
Body of the letter, §1, p27
Book, Pass, §15, p20
Signature, §15, p19
Business forms, §15, p15
letters, §14, p13
words and phrases, §14, p34

C

Cablegrams, Telegrams and, §15, p25
Capital-letter rules in letter writing, Applying, §9, p10
letters, Indicating the rules for, §9, p6
letters, Rules for the use of, §9, p1
letters, Supplying, §9, p8
Card, Signature, §15, p19
Case, Definition of, §11, p18
Nominative, §11, p19
Objective, §11, p20
Possessive, §11, p22
Causes of mispronunciation of words, §2, p2
Checks, §15, p21
Classifying sentences, §7, p11
sentences as simple or compound, §6, p3
words, §10, p37
Clause, Definition of a, §7, p2
in complex sentences, Indicating the, §7, p4
Rules for the comma with the, §7, p5
The, §7, p1
Clauses having the connecting word omitted, §7, p3

Clauses, How to punctuate, §7, p5
Marking and punctuating, §7, p7
that are quotations, §7, p4
Clearness in letter writing, §14, p4
Clerk's letter of inquiry, §1, p17
Collective noun, §11, p2
Colon, The, §8, p11
Comma, The, §8, p5
Common errors in pronunciation, §2, p15
errors in speech, §2, p16
errors in speech and writing, §3, p14
noun, Definition of a, §11, p2
Comparison of adjectives and adverbs, Practice in the, §13, p8
Points to be observed in, §13, p7
Complete subject and complete predicate, §5, p5
Complex sentence, Definition of a, §7, p2
Complimentary close of letter, §1, p32
closes and signatures, §1, p33
Conciseness and completeness in letters, §14, p4
Congratulation, Letters of, §15, p37
Conjunction, Definition of a, §10, p32
Conjunctions, Classification of, §13, p31
Connecting word omitted, Clauses having, §7, p3
words for clauses, §7, p2
Consonant, Definition of a, §2, p4
Consonants, Vowels and, §2, p4
Correct forms of letters and business papers, §1, p13
forms of sentences, Writing the, §11, p34
Correcting errors, §15, p14
errors in a letter, §15, p39
errors in sentences, §8, p26
misspelled words, §6, p15
Correction of errors in pronunciation, §2, p3
Correctness in letter writing, §14, p4
Correspondence, Social, §15, p29

D

Declarative sentence, Definition of, §5, p8
Definition of a consonant, §2, p4
of a vowel, §2, p4
of an adverb, §10, p20
Degrees of comparison, §13, p5
Deposit slip, §15, p19
Determining the class to which sentences belong, §5, p11
Dictionary exercise, §5, p12; §8, p24
How to handle the, §3, p3
The, §2, p1
Use of the, §3, p3
Distinguishing words similar in sound, §4, p3
Drill for position and arm movement, §1, p8

E

Envelope address, §1, p38
Envelopes, §14, p2
Errors, Correcting, §15, p14
in a letter, Correcting, §15, p39
in pronunciation, Correction of, §2, p3
in speech, Common, §2, p16
Exclamation point, §8, p5

F

Faults to be avoided, §15, p13
Folding the letter, §1, p36
Form of letter, United States Army, §15, p11
Forms, Business, §15, p15
used by banks, §15, p19
Foundation of good writing, §1, p3
Free-arm movement, Requisites for, §1, p8
Friendly letters, §14, p1
letters, Specimen, §15, p31
Friendship letters, §15, p29

G

Gender in nouns and pronouns, Determining, §11, p17
in nouns, Definition of, §11, p16
Good handwriting, Importance of, §1, p2
penmanship, Some essentials to, §1, p3
writing, Foundation of, §1, p3
Groups of words used as prepositions, §13, p25

H

Handwriting and letters, §1, p2
Heading of a letter, §1, p18
Headings of letters, Model, §1, p18
How accent is shown in the dictionary, §2, p12
to handle the dictionary, §3, p3
Hyphen, The, §8, p12

I

Imperative sentence, Definition of, §5, p8
Importance of correct punctuation illustrated, §8, p2
of good handwriting, §1, p2
of knowing words, §2, p1
Increasing the vocabulary, Methods of, §9, p12
Indefinite pronouns, §11, p6
Indicating the syllables and the pronunciation of words, §4, p6
Indorsements, §15, p22
Infinitives, Points to be observed concerning, §12, p33
Inflection, Definition of, §11, p11
of words, §11, p10
Ink, §14, p2

Insertion of the letter, §1, p38
Instructions for using the dictionary, Further, §3, p4
Interjection, Definition of an, §10, p35
Interrogative pronouns, §11, p5
sentence, Definition of, §5, p10

K

Kinds of sentences, according to use, §5, p7

L

Learning to use words similar in sound, §4, p3
Letter, Arrangement of a, §14, p3
Body of the, §1, p27
Folding the, §1, p36
from an attorney to a client, §14, p11
Heading of a, §1, p18
headings, addresses, and salutations, Models of, §1, p24
illustrating paragraphing, unity and variety of sentences, §14, p8
United States Army, Form of, §15, p11
used as means of giving a report, §15, p11
writing, §1, p13; §14, p1
writing, Importance of, §14, p1
writing materials, §14, p1
Writing the, §14, p3
writing, Usage in, §1, p18
Letters acknowledging orders, §14, p15
Business, §14, p1
containing enclosures, §14, p1
Friendly, §14, p1
Friendship, §15, p29
General information concerning, §14, p1
Handwriting and, §1, p2
Kinds of, §14, p1
Miscellaneous business, §15, p1
of application, §14, p25
of condolence, §15, p36
of congratulation, §15, p37
of inquiry, §14, p20
of introduction, §14, p18
of recommendation, §14, p31
of thanks, §15, p34
ordering goods, §14, p14
Proper formation of, §1, p9
Social, §14, p1; §15, p29
List of words for spelling, §8, p26
of words likely to be confused, §4, p2
Listening, Increasing vocabulary by, §9, p12

M

Make-up of the letter, §1, p15
Marked sounds, §2, p5
Marking and punctuating clauses, §7, p7
Marks of parenthesis, The, §8, p14
Materials for writing, §1, p9
Mechanical details of social letters, §15, p29
Miscellaneous business letters, §15, p1
common errors, §5, p13; §6, p9
errors, §7, p21; §8, p25
Mispronunciation of words, Causes of, §2, p2
Misused verbs, §12, p28
Mode, Indicative, §12, p16
in verbs, §12, p16
Subjunctive, §12, p16
Model headings of letters, §1, p18

N

Negatives, Double, §13, p9
Note, Promissory, §15, p24
Noun, Collective, §11, p2
Definition of a, §10, p2
The, §10, p1
Verbal, §11, p2
Nouns and pronouns, §11, p1
and pronouns, Use of, §11, p27
Classes of, §11, p1
Common, §11, p1
commonly confused, §11, p29
commonly misused, §10, p4
Discriminating between, §10, p7
Possessive forms of, §11, p23
Proper, §11, p1
Number in nouns, §11, p11
in nouns, Definition of, §11, p11

O

Omission of the verb or of part of the verb, §12, p36

P

Paper for writing letters, §14, p1
Paragraph, The, §14, p5
Paragraphs, Indentation of, §14, p5
Length of, §14, p5
Parts of a letter, §1, p13
of speech, §10, p1
Pass book, §15, p20
Period, The, §8, p4
Person and number in verbs, §12, p19
Personal pronouns, Definition of, §11, p4
Phrase and the clause, §13, p38
Definition of a, §10, p29
Prepositional, §13, p39
Verbal, §13, p39
Phrases and clauses classified with respect to the work they do, §13, p39
Plural in nouns, Methods of forming, §11, p11
Plurals in nouns, Irregular, §11, p13
Points to be observed, §12, p21

Position and arm movement, Drill for, §1, p8
of arm and hand in writing, §1, p6
of paper, etc., in writing, §1, p6
of the body in writing, §1, p4
Practice in using nouns and pronouns, §11, p35
Preposition and the conjunction, §13, p24
Definition of a, §10, p29
The, §10, p28
Promissory note, §15, p24
Pronoun, Advantages of the, §10, p8
Definition of a, §10, p9
Pronouns, Antecedents of, §10, p9
Classes of, §11, p4
commonly used, §10, p9
Demonstrative, §11, p6
Errors to avoid in the use of, §10, p11
Indefinite, §11, p6
Interrogative, §11, p5
Personal, §11, p4
Relative, §11, p7
Pronunciation, Common errors in, §2, p15
Correct, §2, p2
Proper formation of letters, §1, p9
noun, Definition of a, §11, p2
Punctuation, Importance of, §8, p1
marks, §8, p4
Need of, §8, p1
Rules for, §8, p4
Supplying necessary, §8, p9
Usage in, §8, p3

Q

Question mark, §8, p4
Quotation marks, §8, p13

R

Reading, Increasing vocabulary by, §9, p12
Receipt, Definition of, §15, p17
Relative pronoun, Position of the, §11, p8
pronouns, §11, p7
Replies to inquiries, §14, p22
Requisites for free-arm movement, §1, p8
Review of mechanical details in letter writing, §14, p3
Rules for punctuation, Applying the, §8, p15

S

Salesman's reply to a clerk's letter, §2, p10
Salutation, The, §1, p23
Scope of lessons, §1, p1
Semicolon, The, §8, p10
Sentence and its elements, The, §5, p1
Complex, §7, p1
compound, Definition of a, §6, p3
Definition of, §5, p1
Definition of declarative, §5, p8
Sentence, Definition of imperative, §5, p8
Definition of simple, §6, p2
interrogative, Definition of, §5, p10
predicate of a, Definition of, §5, p3
Simple, §6, p1
Sentences, Changing compound sentences to simple, §6, p4
classified according to form, §6, p1
Combining simple sentences into compound, §6, p5
Combining simple sentences to form compound and complex, §7, p16
Comma and semicolon in compound, §7, p18
Composing and combining simple, §6, p8
Composing compound, §6, p6
Connecting words for compound, §6, p5
Kinds of, according to use, §5, p7
Principal parts of, §5, p2
Variety in, §7, p11
Signature book, §15, p19
card, §15, p19
of letter, §1, p32
Signs and characters used in business, §8, p20
Silent vowels, §2, p7
Simple subject and simple predicate, §5, p5
Slip, Deposit, §15, p19
Social correspondence, §15, p29
letters, §14, p1; §15, p29
letters, Mechanical details of, §15, p29
Some essentials to good penmanship, §1, p3
Specimen friendly letters, §15, p31
Spelling, §2, p17; §7, p23; §9, p13
words, §5, p15; §6, p11
Stock phrases, §1, p28
Style in friendly letters, §15, p30
Subject and predicate, Agreement of, §5, p6; §12, p20
of a sentence, Definition of, §5, p3
Supplying subjects and predicates, §5, p1
Syllable, Definition of a, §2, p8
Syllables, §2, p8
and accents in some words relating to schools, §2, p13
Synonyms, §4, p7
Determining, for words, §4, p11
Importance of, §4, p7
List of, §4, p9
Where to find, §4, p9

T

Telegrams and cablegrams, §15, p25
Tense, Definition of, §12, p6
Tenses, Perfect, §12, p12
Terms often confused in use, §4, p1
often wrongly used, §4, p12
The body in writing, Position of, §1, p4

U

United States Army form of letter, §15, p11
Unity, §14, p6
  How to secure, §14, p6
Unmarked sounds, §2, p7
Usage in letter writing, §1, p18
Use of adjectives and adverbs, Discriminating in the, §13, p23
  of auxiliaries, Discriminating in the, §12, p27
  of dictionary, Increasing the vocabulary by, §9, p12
  of long terms and expressions, §4, p16
  of pronouns, Errors to avoid in the, §11, p25
Uses and distinctions between adjectives and adverbs, §13, p1
Using the dictionary, Further instructions for, §3, p4
  words in sentences, §8, p28

V

Variety in sentence construction, §14, p7
Various meanings of words, §3, p2
Verb, Classification of the, §12, p1
  Definition of a, §10, p13
  Inflections of the, §12, p1
Verbal noun, §11, p2
Verbals and infinitives, §12, p32
  Points to be observed concerning, §12, p34
Verbs both transitive and intransitive, §12, p4
  frequently misused, §10, p15
Verbs, Helping, §12, p9
  Intransitive, §12, p2
  Principal parts of, §12, p9
  Regular and irregular, §12, p10
  Some troublesome, §12, p24
  Transitive, §12, p2
Vocabulary, Methods of increasing the, §9, p12
  The, §9, p11
Voice, Active, §12, p3
  Passive, §12, p3
Vowel, Definition of a, §2, p4
Vowels and consonants, §2, p4
  Silent, §2, p7
  Sounded, §2, p7

W

Words, §2, p1
  Classifying, §10, p37
  grouped by syllables, Some necessary, §2, p9
  Importance of knowing, §2, p1
  similar in sound but different in spelling and meaning, §3, p12
  spelled alike but pronounced differently, §3, p8
  that are used as several parts of speech, §10, p36
  understood, §10, p37
Writing a business man's letter to his attorney, §14, p10
  Letter, §1, p13
  materials, §1, p9

428-AAX-679